

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 10, 1891.

The Week.

THE President has issued the usual annual proclamation warning "all persons not to enter 'the dominion of the United States in the waters of Bering Sea' for the purpose of violating the provisions of section 1956 of the Revised Statutes. The issuance of such a proclamation 'at a timely season in each year' is required by the act of March 2, 1889, 'to provide for the protection of the salmon fisheries of Alaska.' The history of this act is rather curious. It was introduced February 25, 1889, by Senator Stockbridge of Michigan, who said that it was urgently recommended by the Fish Commission. It was referred to the Committee on Fisheries, and reported favorably on the 28th of the same month and passed without calling the yeas and nays. It contained only two brief sections, one prohibiting the erection of dams in the rivers of Alaska which should prevent the salmon from reaching their spawning grounds, the other providing that the Fish Commissioner should institute an investigation into the habits of the salmon of Alaska and make a report recommending to Congress such additional legislation as should be needful to preserve the salmon fishery there. The bill reached the House the same day, February 28, and was immediately put on its passage. Mr. Dunn of Arkansas offered an additional section as an amendment, declaring "that section 1956 of the Revised Statutes of the United States was intended to include and apply to all, and is hereby declared to include and apply to all, the waters of Bering Sea in Alaska embraced within the boundary lines mentioned and described in the treaty with Russia dated March 30, 1867." Section 1956 Revised Statutes is the one which forbids the killing of any fur seal "in the territory of Alaska or the waters thereof." The effect of Mr. Dunn's amendment was to give a legislative interpretation to the phrase "the waters thereof," so as to make those waters include the whole of Bering Sea east of the boundary mentioned in the treaty. It was adopted by the House without a division, and the bill was passed without even an amendment of the title, which spoke only of salmon fisheries.

The bill came back to the Senate the same day and the amendment was read. Senator Edmunds remarked that the amendment raised a very important and difficult question. He did not know whether it was intended to apply to American citizens only or to foreigners as well. If it applied to Americans only, it was a very curious discrimination. He moved that it be referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations. Senator Hoar said: "The amendment raises the great question whether the United States propose to assert the doctrine of *mare*

clausum in regard to a sea larger than the Mediterranean, and the gateway to which is 450 miles wide." The bill was referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations, and was reported back the next day by Senator Sherman, with the recommendation that the Senate disagree to the amendment of the House. Mr. Sherman said that the amendment involved a grave principle of international law which the Committee had had no time to consider carefully, that it was not germane to the bill, and that it ought to be abandoned and considered more carefully hereafter. The Senate disagreed to the amendment and asked a committee of conference, and appointed Senators Sherman, Edmunds, and Morgan as its conferees. The House agreed to the conference, and a report was made on the following day (March 2) striking out the House amendment, and substituting for it a declaration that section 1956 includes "all the dominion of the United States in the waters of Bering Sea." The House conferees submitted a statement in writing that "the effect of the amendment is to leave out of the House amendment the words that are descriptive of the boundaries of the waters of Alaska." This supplies presumptive evidence that no President and no Cabinet officer has ever issued an order directing our revenue cutters to seize vessels, either American or foreign, engaged in taking seals more than a marine league from the shore, and leaves us to infer that such orders, if any exist, were issued by subordinate officials at the instance of the Alaska Commercial Company.

The welcome announcement comes from Washington that, just before starting on his vacation, the President gave directions that a portion of the Indian service be placed under civil-service rules. It is explained that the new order will apply to superintendents of schools, teachers, matrons, physicians, and farmers—about twelve hundred employees in all. The system can be extended to cover these by executive order, whereas it cannot be applied to the Indian agents without authority from Congress. There is no part of the civil service where the reform system is more imperatively demanded than in the Indian Bureau, and the extension just ordered by the President is cause for rejoicing on the part of all good citizens.

Senator Morrill of Vermont is evidently opposed to the nomination of Blaine and in favor of the renomination of Harrison by the Republicans next year. In an interview published by the *Times* he said that "Harrison was almost the only one prominently talked of by the Republicans now." Also, that he believed that Mr. Blaine was loyal to Harrison, and that Mr. Blaine did not seem to be in perfect health, although his mental faculties were as

keen and vigorous as ever. Mr. Morrill further-declared himself opposed to reciprocity with Canada. Putting all these facts and fancies together, it would appear to a worldly-minded person that the dividing line in the Republican party is the McKinley tariff; that Mr. Harrison supports that measure and means to be a candidate for reelection on that issue; that Mr. Blaine is opposed to the McKinley tariff, and means to whittle it down by reciprocity treaties as much as he can. Whether Mr. Blaine is loyal to Harrison or not is a matter of indifference to those who shout for Blaine, as the Boston Republican Club did the other day. These men are moved in part by personal attachment, and in part by the belief that McKinleyism will be fatal to Republican success in 1892. They look upon Blaine as the only man who can undo the mischief of last year, whereby a small but safe Republican majority in the House of Representatives was converted into a Democratic majority of 150 members. By nominating Blaine they can hold out the bait of a repeal or modification of the McKinley Bill without actually promising anything in that particular. We apprehend that Blaine's loyalty to Harrison will not operate as an embarrassment to any Republican who is much attached to the former, or to any who was terrified by the returns of the election last November.

The tone of the speeches at the first banquet of the newly organized Republican Club in Boston last week indicated a conviction, in the minds of some of the speakers at least, that the time has arrived when the party must "pander a little to the moral sense of the community," if it is to expect a future. The President of the Club, Mr. Wolcott, struck a keynote in his opening speech, which was not only full of charity for Mugwumps, but also full of very unorthodox views of eminent Republican leaders. "No word of mine," he said, "shall ever be uttered to depreciate that virile independence in politics which holds country and honor above party, which, while acting within party lines, ever strives to secure the best in men and measures, and, often buffeted and defeated, never ceases to wage war upon dishonesty and chicanery, using party as a weapon, but never wearing it as a yoke." As if to illustrate what he meant by acting within party lines and "waging war upon dishonesty and chicanery," Mr. Wolcott went on to denounce the "menace to the cause of free government embodied in 'blocks of five,'" and to say of the Chairman of the National Republican Committee—

"The Republican party must make its appeal, as of old, to the intelligence and patriotism of the country. It must rally to its standard the recruit and drum out the mercenary. The loss of thousands of votes in this State was due to the Pennsylvanian who is still Chairman of the National Committee. The kind of personal politics that seeks and requires what is called 'vindication' is always

at the expense of party, and is a blunder when it is not a crime. The standard of political rectitude must be made more exacting, and it must be remembered that the nation, and not the self-imposed candidate, has the only 'claim' upon every office in its gift."

Secretary Tracy, who was the chief guest of the evening, followed the President of the Club, and devoted his speech mainly to an exposition of the need of putting the navy-yards of the country within the jurisdiction of civil-service rules. "For fifty years," he said, "the employment of labor at the navy-yards has been the one weak spot in navy administration," adding:

"Whatever the party in control of the Government, it seems hitherto to have been powerless to exclude political influence in the employment of navy-yard labor. It is not enough, apparently, that the mechanics and workmen in the Government shops should be Republicans or Democrats—they must wear the collar of the ward bosses who run the local political machine. The practice is a source of demoralization to any party that attempts to use it, destructive to the Government services, and debauching to local and national politics. It is an ulcer on the naval administrative system, and I propose to cut it out."

Nobody who has followed the Secretary's extraordinary course in regard to the employment of labor in the Brooklyn Navy-yard, will deny that it has constituted an "ulcer" which has "debauched both local and national politics" in Kings County, as thoroughly as similar conduct by his predecessors in office debauched the same politics for fifty years. If he has decided that reform is necessary, a distinguished convert to the cause of civil-service reform has been gained. He will have to keep an eye on the President, however, for there is no telling when the latter may become convinced that the bad deeds of the Democratic party in the South and in Congress make it his duty to set civil-service-reform rules and pledges aside, as he did in both the Boston Custom-house and the Boston Post-office.

There is, we dare say, something in the theory that the impatience shown by many of the younger Republican Senators from the West at what they stigmatize as the "dictation" of the "old fogies" from the East, had its share of influence in hastening Mr. Edmunds's withdrawal from public life. There is no doubt of the existence of a strong and growing sectional feeling of this sort throughout the West, without regard to party lines. It finds expression in the increasing frequency of the remark that there is really not half so much in common between the West and the East as there is between the West and the South, and that an alliance between the two latter sections would be of far greater advantage to the West than further submission to what is denounced as the "tyranny of the East." The younger Republican Senators from the West are so full of this idea that they hardly conceal their intention to make trouble for the Eastern "fossils," as they call them.

It should not be forgotten that the nation owes Senator Edmunds hearty thanks for

much-needed assistance in defeating the Force Bill. When the proposition to change the Senate rules and introduce the Reed régime was brought forward by the advocates of the Force Bill during the first session of the Fifty-first Congress, the Vermont Senator took a firm stand against it, and thus was largely responsible for carrying the matter over to the short session. Towards the close of the controversy in the second session, Mr. Edmunds's partisanship was so much aroused that he was understood to have changed his position on the question of the rules, and to be ready to consent to the introduction of the previous question. Happily, it was then too late to be of any avail. It is a serious blunder on the part of the Burlington (Vt.) *Free Press* to cite, as an evidence of Mr. Edmunds's statesmanship, the fact that "he reported and had charge of and carried through the great civil and political rights act which now forms the principal body of the law on that subject," and to add that "the importance of his services in regard to this measure cannot be exaggerated." That Mr. Edmunds reported and carried through the act in question is true, but it ceased to be "the principal body of the law on that subject" from the day when the Supreme Court, consisting entirely of judges appointed by Republican Presidents, said of it: "On the whole, we are of opinion that no countenance of authority for the passage of the law in question can be found in either the Thirteenth or Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution; and no other ground of authority for its passage being suggested, it must necessarily be declared void." A more severe rebuke of a Senator could hardly be imagined than was thus administered to Mr. Edmunds by the highest judicial tribunal in the land, all the members of which then held commissions signed by Presidents of the party to which he belonged. Mr. Edmunds has rendered the nation great services, notably in carrying through the Electoral Commission scheme of 1877; but he is a very injudicious friend who revives the memory of his connection with the Civil-Rights Act.

The judicial election in Michigan last week resulted in a majority for the Republicans of not far from 7,000. Some of the party organs have treated the result as a great victory for the Republicans on national issues. The *Philadelphia Press* is more sensible when it says: "There is no State in the Union in which the people are better able to judge of the merits of parties and policies than are the voters of Michigan. They defeated the Republican party last fall because it presented an unworthy candidate for Governor, and they defeated the Democratic party last Monday because it has used its temporary power in the Legislature to perpetrate some of the most despicable tricks ever perpetrated by a political organization." So far as national issues are concerned, the fact that the Republican majority was no larger last week when the Democrats so richly deserved an overwhelming defeat on State issues, would indicate that

in a fair fight between the two parties Michigan would be doubtful.

A bill to distribute the direct-tax money refunded by the Federal Government to the State of New York has been introduced into the Assembly and referred to the Committee of Ways and Means. It provides that said moneys shall be apportioned among the several counties of the State by the Comptroller, and paid to the County Treasurers of the several counties of the State and to the Chamberlain of the city and county of New York in proportion to the total equalized valuation of property for purposes of taxation of said several counties for the year 1861, upon which the State tax of 1862 was levied. We trust that no such bill, or any other county refunding bill, will pass. If the money is left in the State Treasury and applied to that portion of the State debt which is yet unprovided for (\$1,677,887), and the balance used for other State purposes, it will apportion itself among the counties satisfactorily. It may not go in the exact ratio that the apportionment of 1861 would provide, but it will answer all the ends of justice, and spare a deal of squabbling among the county supervisors, who will be asked to apportion it among the towns.

A bill has been introduced in the Minnesota Legislature prohibiting any foreign insurance company—that is, any company whose home office is outside the United States, or the majority of whose stock is owned or controlled by parties not citizens of the United States—from doing business in the State until it has deposited with the State Treasurer not less than \$200,000 invested in Minnesota securities. The pretended reason for this is, that the deposit shall be held for the benefit of the policy-holders, although the policy-holders are already amply secured against any possible failure of these foreign companies by the provisions of the Federal law which require each of them to deposit with the Treasurer of the State wherein is its principal office in the United States, securities amounting to \$200,000 and trust funds in the hands of trustees to the amount of \$300,000 more—or half-a-million dollars in all. If, in addition to this, each State in the Union is going to demand an additional deposit of \$200,000 more, this would be equivalent to a requirement that each foreign company make an aggregate deposit in the different State Treasuries of about \$9,000,000 for the privilege of doing business. The *St. Paul Pioneer Press* exposes the absurdity and injustice of this scheme in an elaborate article which is introduced by this feeling remark: "We have had a good many mischief-making Legislatures before the one now in session, but none half so fertile and ingenious as this in concocting measures which are deliberately designed to inflict every possible injury upon every possible business interest." Unfortunately for the rest of the States in the Union, Minnesota is not much worse off in this respect than they are.

The new ballot law which the New Hampshire Legislature has enacted, and for which the Governor's approval is assured, is, in all essential respects, similar to the Massachusetts law. It does not, like the Maine law, provide for the arrangement of candidates' names by party groups upon the ballots, but in alphabetical order under each office, with the politics indicated after each name. In case a candidate is nominated by means of petitions or nomination papers, the words "nom. paper" must be added after the political appellation. This will assist the voter in deciding whether a candidate is "regular" or not. A new feature, in laws of this kind, is a provision requiring the use of ballot-boxes "with a bell and mechanical device for receiving, registering, and cancelling every ballot deposited therein," but specifying that "no such box shall record any number or mark upon any ballot by which said ballots can be distinguished from each other." There is no obvious reason for the adoption of boxes of this kind, except that the owners of some patented device succeeded in inducing the Legislature to make use of it. Every New England State has a ballot-reform law now, and all of them, except Connecticut, have thoroughgoing ones. The number of States throughout the country with such laws now stands at twenty-three, with the prospect of Illinois and Ohio soon swelling it to twenty-five.

The renewal of gold exports of considerable amount ought to direct public attention again to the law which requires the Government to buy 4,500,000 ounces of silver per month. This product of American industry is peculiarly well fitted for export. The demand for it is as steady as ever, but the Government steps in just as it reaches the seaboard and takes the whole, or nearly the whole, output of the mines, pays gold for it, and then locks it up. Then the exporters, who were about to send the silver abroad to pay our debts with, send the gold instead. That is the explanation of the present exportation of gold. We may expect this draft on our gold to continue until prices of other exportable commodities are lowered so that foreigners will take our goods rather than our money.

The newly discovered counterfeit two-dollar silver certificate shatters the belief expressed three years ago by the House Committee on Treasury expenditures, in their report opposing the use of steam-presses in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. They contended that, while these presses might reduce the cost of printing, yet this economy would be counterbalanced by "the increased expense of maintaining the secret division of the Treasury Department, which must be incurred so long as the obligations and securities of the Government can be readily and successfully imitated—an expenditure that can be reduced as soon as the Government shall be able to print its securities or obligations in so perfect a manner as to make it impossible to counterfeit them; and when this degree of ex-

cellence in printing our notes and securities shall be reached, there will be the further saving of the expense attending the prosecution of captured counterfeiters." Nearly two years have passed since the steam-presses were thrown out to give room to the hand-presses which would enable the Government "to print its securities or obligations in so perfect a manner as to make it impossible to counterfeit them." Yet we have heard of no movement to abolish the Secret-Service Bureau, or even to reduce its force and expenditures. The fact is, that even if there were no counterfeiters of our gold and silver coins, the secret service could not with safety to our currency be abolished or crippled. So long as there are Government obligations and securities to be counterfeited, there will be persons to attempt to imitate them; and it will make no difference whether they are printed on hand-presses or steam-presses, if they be printed well.

It was not the imperfect printing that disclosed the character of the counterfeit; it was imperfect engraving—the mistake in the check-letter and the signature. The art of printing securities presents no serious difficulties to the counterfeiter; even the distinctive paper, thought by so many to be an important safeguard, he has imitated with almost perfect success. It is the engraving that taxes his skill, ingenuity, and capital. He finds it exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to engrave a plate that will be the equal in every part of one turned out by the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. He cannot engrave with equal excellence the portrait, the border, the signature, the lettering, and other features of a note, each of which is always intrusted to one man skilled in doing that particular thing. He does not possess the lathes and other machinery of the Bureau, nor is he familiar with its system of check-marks and numbers that add to the security of the work. To say, therefore, that the excellence of our notes and certificates depends entirely on the machine printing them is absurd.

Mr. Platt's home organ, the *Owego Times*, asks: "Why is it that the Democratic press is generally silent regarding the fact that, under the McKinley Tariff Law, sugar, is at present two cents cheaper than before this bill became law?" The impression we have gained from a pretty large exchange-list is, that the Democratic press is by no means generally silent on the subject, but, on the contrary, indulges in uproarious mirth over this clearest of demonstrations that the tariff is a tax, and the accompanying consternation among the better-informed Republicans. Off comes the tariff, down goes the cost; this is the lesson that the sugar provision of the McKinley tariff teaches in every household of the land. McKinley platform speakers have taught that the tariff is no tax; that it is a tax, but one that is paid by the foreign exporter, etc., etc. Along comes the McKinley change in the sugar rates and shows

that the tariff was all tax and all paid by our own citizens, and that the price goes down just so soon and just so much as the tariff is reduced. It would, indeed, be very singular if, in regard to this clear argument that touches every pocket, the Democratic press were to be generally silent.

The last number of the trade newspaper *Hardware* has a continuation of the history of the Axe Trust, the beginning of which was published in the same journal last year. The American Axe and Tool Company, which undertook to monopolize the business, did not succeed in getting all the factories consolidated, but it made an arrangement with the outside concerns by which uniformity of prices should be maintained. Then it made a heavy advance in the price of axes, and went on swimmingly until a lot of old factories that had been closed in the previous struggle of the "survival of the fittest" were encouraged to reopen. This led to negotiations to bring in the outsiders, who were nothing loath. While the negotiation was in progress, the Trust sent out its agents to make secret contracts with the trade, offering a heavy rebate on the former agreed price if the jobbers would agree to buy exclusively from the Trust. But the jobbers were too smart. They refused to make such contracts, and then the double-dealing of the Trust became manifest, to the amazement of the outside manufacturers. An old-fashioned fight ensued and is still going on, to the joy of the jobbers and the consumers, who are now paying for axes what they can be produced for by the most skilful and best-equipped concerns.

That was a bad case of "journalism" that broke out in Rome last Friday, when the American newspapers were advised that if the United States Government did not answer the Marquis Imperiali's note by Saturday, the American Minister to Italy would be ordered to bundle himself out of the country. This news was preceded by the usual "it is reported," and the reporter has ever since been searching for the source of the report, but thus far without success. On Saturday he said that the rumor that had been "put in circulation" was the principal topic of conversation in political and official circles, because the report had come "with startling suddenness." A lurking disposition was manifested to let it go, however, in the remark that "it is not summarily dismissed as incredible." Its origin was ascribed to "a prominent member of the Chamber of Deputies," but his name was prudently withheld. A reassuring paragraph was added, to the effect that no American need fear to travel in Italy. Further assurance was conveyed the following day by a paragraph from the *Opinione* of Rome, that if the American Government could afford to wait, Italy could do so "serenely, and without lamentation or threats." This was a flat contradiction of "the report," but the unknown author of it is not yet willing to part with it, as appears by the latest despatches.

THE PROPER SIEVE FOR IMMIGRANTS.

THE New Orleans massacre of Italians has made more prominent than ever the question of restriction on immigration, and the act of Congress for the exclusion of persons of bad character and infirm or diseased persons is being enforced more rigidly than before. The Union League Club of this city, at a meeting on Thursday evening, called on the general Government for more stringent legislation to prevent the influx of criminals and paupers and to restrict naturalization. One finds expressions of opinion of the same sort in speeches and articles all over the country. There is no doubt that the belief that the tide of immigration generally, whether the people composing it are criminals or paupers or not, ought to be arrested or diminished in some manner, is steadily gaining ground; but we nowhere find any adequate discussion of the means by which the desired end is to be accomplished.

The nature of the problem has been extremely well described in a book on 'Emigration and Immigration,' published last year by Prof. Richmond Smith of Columbia College. We cannot hope at present for a fuller account than he supplies of the history of emigration to the United States, and of its moral, social, economical, and political effects. He is evidently of opinion that we have reached a point of economical development when we can supply our own wants, so far as unskilled labor is concerned, with the aid of machinery, and maintains the desirableness of some degree of exclusion, on the general ground that every nation is bound to see that its own civilization does not suffer from an attempt to absorb foreigners in a lower stage of civilization. But neither he nor any one else who has treated the subject deals with the *modus in quo*. What we want to hear now from some quarter is an answer to the question, By what process shall we sift the desirable from the undesirable immigrants either here or abroad?

The lunatics, paupers, and cripples are easily weeded out. All we have to do as regards them is to send enough doctors on board when the ships come into port. Even if they slip through, their presence here is merely a question of the expense of taking care of them. But how about the question of character, which concerns the workings of our institutions? To get at the character of one hundred natives living in the next street is, as every one knows, no easy matter. But by what sort of visitation or scrutiny would it be possible to get reliable information about the morality and antecedents of the 200,000 ignorant and obscure Italians, or of the 100,000 Germans, or the 40,000 Austro-Hungarians, who came to us in 1889?

Prof. Smith mentions the late Mr. Eugene Schuyler's plan of requiring a consular certificate of good character and self-maintaining capacity from each emigrant, but he sees the obvious objection to it that it would give the consuls far more work than they could do, and would make them dependent on the local police for nearly all their information. He might have added that no consuls

are less fitted for such task than American consuls, under our present system of appointment. They rarely know the language of the country in which they are stationed, and rarely keep their places long enough to acquire any intimate acquaintance with the manners and customs of the people. Consequently their 1,000,000 yearly certificates of character would not be worth the paper on which they were written, even if they put one dollar each in the consular pocket. We have, in fact, no civil service, either at home or abroad, fit for the application of moral tests to foreigners.

We do not pretend to be wiser on this subject than any one else, but if it be decided that unrestricted immigration, as at present carried on, is dangerous to American institutions and ideals, it is very odd that the value of language as a political and moral test of fitness should be overlooked. Nearly all the really secure or progressive modern States are based on community of language—France, England, Russia, Germany, and Italy. The only two in Europe about whose future there are serious doubts are the polyglot States of Austria and Turkey. All European nationalities have in fact been built up on language. As a cohesive force there is nothing that can compare to language. How a democratic state governed by opinion expressed through universal suffrage could last for any considerable length of time without community of language, it is hard to conceive, for it is through community of language that men are able to feel and think the same way about public affairs, and cherish the same political ideals. Every immigrant who comes to this country speaking or understanding the English language becomes, from the day he lands, exposed to all the moral and social influences and agencies on which we rely for the maintenance and preservation of the American nationality. Everything he hears every hour helps to make him a good citizen. Every man who lands ignorant of English, on the other hand, if an ignorant man generally, is absolutely shielded for an indefinite period against all the instrumentalities of American civilization. No American ideas reach him. American persuasion does not touch him. He remains a foreigner in spite of himself, outside all the great currents of popular thought and sentiment. To feel the pulse or tap the chest of such a man, therefore, in order to ascertain his probable value as a citizen, when he does not know one word of the medium in which the national life, in all fields of activity, is carried on, seems an absurdity on its face.

Moreover, the test of language would be more easily applied than any other. Every immigrant who got in without ability to answer a question in English would be a witness of the inspecting officer's dishonesty, for any one could apply the test. Of course, it would have to be applied under various restrictions. It would hardly do to cut off the relatives and friends of non-English foreigners now resident in this country. Nor would it do to treat ignorance of English as a disqualification in the case of skilled or educated foreigners, for they would be sure

to acquire the language promptly after settling here. But, taken for all in all, this test would shut out more of the undesirable element in immigration, and would be easier of application, and would have more practical advantages, than any other that could be devised. It is true, it would to a great extent confine immigration to English, Scotch, and Irishmen, but why not, if the restriction be really undertaken in the interest of American civilization? We are under no obligation to see that all races and nations enjoy an equal chance of getting here. This legislation, as we understand it, is to be for the benefit of the United States; and if the United States is desirous of admitting some Europeans, but only those easiest of absorption, the ones to choose are those who, when they land, can at once enter into intellectual relations with the community at large.

CORRUPT PRACTICES LEGISLATION.

THE Legislatures of several States are considering measures for the publication and limitation of campaign expenditures, but thus far no law on the subject has been enacted this year. Mr. Saxton's amendment to the New York statute of last year, extending its provisions to campaign committees and their officers, has passed the Senate, but has not yet been acted upon in the Assembly. A bill prohibiting the contribution of money in any form by any person, agent, committee, company, association, or corporation to any person or organization of any kind for use in elections, and forbidding the receipt of such contributions by anybody for such use, has been passed by one house of the Rhode Island Legislature. Two of the most comprehensive measures of the kind which have appeared since the agitation of the subject of legislation of this kind began a few years ago are now under consideration in the Legislatures of Massachusetts and Minnesota. In totally different ways they aim to meet and overcome the evil of the undue and corrupt use of money, and are obviously the outcome of such intelligent and thoughtful study of the problem that they deserve careful consideration.

The Massachusetts bill, though following somewhat the lines of a measure which passed the lower house of the Legislature in 1889 and was defeated in the Senate, is in many respects an original piece of legislation. It requires that all committees and organizations of any kind assisting in the nomination, election, or defeat of any candidate for political office shall have treasurers, and shall cause to be kept detailed accounts of all money, securities, and equivalents of money received or promised to them, and of the manner in which the same have been expended, and of all payments, liabilities, or promises of payment made by them. Within four weeks after election, all treasurers must file sworn statements of all transactions in which they have been engaged during the campaign, giving itemized accounts of all receipts and of all disbursements. Every member of a committee or organization who

receives or disburses money or its equivalent in any form is required to make a detailed statement to the treasurer, who must include it in his sworn return. Every candidate before any caucus or convention, or at any election, must also file sworn statements in detail of all receipts and disbursements of which he has personal knowledge. Every payment of a sum exceeding five dollars to any one person for expense in election must be vouched for by a bill stating particulars and by a receipt.

There is no limit placed to the expenditures candidates may incur, but blank forms are specified which must be filled out in the sworn returns, and which make it necessary to set down the exact amounts spent on printing, hall and headquarters rentals, stationery, clerk hire, canvassers, and other familiar campaign items. An entirely novel feature of the bill is the bestowal upon the Supreme Judicial Court and the Superior Court of full equity powers to compel any person who fails to file his sworn statement, or files a statement which does not conform strictly to the provisions of the act, to comply with the law. Such equity proceedings may be begun on petition of any candidate voted for in the election, or on petition of ten qualified voters in the same election. The courts are also empowered to advance cases of this kind upon their dockets in order that they may be tried and decided with as little delay as possible. No person testifying in such cases shall be liable to criminal prosecution for anything concerning which he may testify, except for perjury.

The Minnesota bill has no resemblance whatever to the Massachusetts measure, but aims to stop the use of money for corrupt purposes by methods similar to those which have been used with so much success in England under the Corrupt Practices Act of 1883. It limits the expenditures of all candidates for United States Senate, Congress, and State offices to \$1,000 each; those of all candidates for county offices to \$500 each; those of all candidates for offices in cities of over 15,000 inhabitants to \$500 each; and those for all candidates in all other places to \$250 each. It forbids the use of any of the money allowed by law for any save the legitimate expenses of election. It defines lawful uses, and specifies a long catalogue of unlawful uses, which includes entertainments of all kinds, defining undue influence, in fact, with almost as great minuteness as the English statute does. It forbids the use of money by candidates or by anybody else, and also the contribution of it to be used to influence in any manner the vote of any person. In this respect it is drawn with much the same care and fulness as our New York statute. It also forbids betting of all kinds on the results of an election, and forbids bulldozing, intimidation, and violence by anybody, whether individual or corporation. Sworn statements in detail of all receipts and expenditures are required within ten days after election from both candidates and campaign committee officers. Penalty for violation of any of the provisions of the act is made a misdemeanor punishable with imprisonment for not less

than three months nor more than one year, in addition to forfeiture of office in case of election.

This is a very stringent bill in every way, and is notable as being the first American adoption of the English idea of putting a maximum limit to campaign expenditures. It has passed the Senate and is yet to be acted upon by the House. If it shall become a law, its working will be watched with great interest. The English act has, as we have pointed out on former occasions, succeeded far beyond the most sanguine expectations of its authors. They feared, as did all commentators on their work, that they had placed the maximum limits too low, but experience has shown that they were really a full third too high, since in no election under the law has the total expenditure exceeded two-thirds of the total maximum allowed by law; the fact being that sworn publicity has made it impossible to expend the maximum amount without violating the provisions of the law.

THE ITALIAN MONARCHY.

AN article in the last number of the *Contemporary Review*, signed "A Continental Statesman," is exciting a genuine sensation in Europe. No guessing at the author appears to have been thus far successful, but that he is what he calls himself, and that he writes as a man who has been behind the scenes in the foreign politics of the Continental States, there appears to be little doubt. That he is either a Frenchman or an Italian also appears to be very certain, and most probably a Frenchman. He talks as an avowed champion of "Latinism" as opposed to "Germanism," and, unless he is taking great pains to disguise himself, he is a foreigner, but a respectful and sympathetic one, to the Italians.

His position is that the Italian monarchy is on the edge of an abyss, and that unless there is a complete change of policy, both foreign and domestic, within a very brief period, the House of Savoy will cease to reign and will be succeeded by a republic. He opens by recalling Mamiani's prediction in 1849 that "Rome must belong either to the Pope or Cola Rienzi," and Mazzini's still more pregnant one, that "Crispi will be the last Minister of the Italian monarchy." He then goes on to give the reasons why, in his opinion, the danger of their fulfilment is rapidly increasing. The House of Savoy should, after the foundation of the Italian kingdom in 1870, have thrown in its lot formally with France, not as a matter of gratitude for past assistance, but because France, as Latin and democratic, is the natural ally of Italy, which is also Latin and democratic. Instead of this the House of Savoy threw the French alliance overboard, and, although the origin of the monarchy was revolutionary, allied itself with that of Germany, which stands for divine right and is the hereditary foe of the Latin races. This would have been unfortunate, considering the great recuperative powers of the French people and the value of their trade and friendship to the Italians, even if it had entailed no immediate burdens or sacrifices. But it led before very long, almost inevitably,

to the formation of a military alliance directed against France. This compelled Italy, before the new kingdom had been fairly consolidated, the Administration reformed, the finances regulated, or the population educated (or, as regarded a portion of it, civilized), to set on foot an army and navy about twice too expensive for its means, and begot a colonizing rivalry with France which plunged the kingdom into the deplorable Abyssinian adventure. As a consequence of this, the finances have been thrown again into disorder. Here is now the situation:

"In the year 1881, the last year of the policy of political neutrality, the expenditure, ordinary and extraordinary, of the kingdom was 1,229,578,938 lire (little more than £49,000,000 sterling). In 1889, the eighth year of the policy of alliances, the ordinary and extraordinary expenses were 1,740,578,938 lire (nearly £70,000,000 sterling). The treasury is therefore actually burdened with an outlay of over £20,000,000 sterling more than when Italy did not swerve from her neutral policy, and thus the policy of alliances has augmented the charge on the taxpayers by 40 per cent. In 1881 the policy of neutrality enabled the Government to announce a surplus of 51,000,000 lire (£2,000,000); in 1888-89 the system of alliances added to previous deficits a new one of 230,000,000 lire (£9,000,000)."

This was followed by the abrogation of the Treaty of Commerce with France, and the adoption of the policy of high protection in 1887. Ever since then the exports and imports have been diminishing. The public credit has been well-nigh ruined. Italian paper is no longer negotiable in the French money market, and the stoppage of a great number of industries dependent on the accommodation given by French discount banks has thrown vast bodies of people out of employment. The taxes in the meanwhile grow in the inverse ratio of the ability of the people to pay them.

All the great modern revolutions have been caused by taxation—the English Revolution of 1640, the American Revolution of 1776, and the French Revolution of 1789. The present situation in Italy cannot last. The burdens of the Triple Alliance are intolerable. They would not be borne patiently much longer even in a country in which the monarchy was rooted in the soil. They are sure not to be borne indefinitely in a country in which the monarchy is of recent and revolutionary origin. Even if the popular attention should be distracted from domestic troubles by the outbreak of a war between France and Germany, sure relief could not come of it. In truth, one danger would be substituted for another. The Italian army might suffer a crushing defeat in the field, and a monarchy of revolutionary origin, like that of the Bonapartists or that of the House of Savoy in Italy, would be swept away on the morrow by a wave of popular rage and disappointment. Nothing but a republic would or could, in a democratic and by no means homogeneous country like Italy, take its place.

The "Continental Statesman" also lays great stress on the failure of the new kingdom to come to terms with the Pope. The Papacy, he says, cannot restore the temporal power, but it cannot be reconciled with the

monarchy. With a Federal Republic he thinks it could be reconciled. The moral power of the Pope, as the one potentate of the modern world who has envoys in every foreign village, he still thinks enormous, and one against which no Catholic State can afford to contend indefinitely; but this part of the article is a piece of politico-religious speculation of which it is difficult for an outsider to estimate the value. The impressiveness of the purely political part every reader must feel.

MAFFIA, CAMORRA, BRIGANDAGE— ALIAS CRIME.

LONDON, March 23, 1891.

In 1861 the chief aim, one might say, of all patriots who had assisted in the political liberation of Italy was to extirpate crime. I remember on the first day of Garibaldi's entry into Naples that old Mignogna, one of the most devoted patriots and conspirators that could be found the country over, presented to us a splendid specimen of a Neapolitan gentleman, Signor Mele, saying, "Our friend here wishes you to be the guests of his wife. He has a beautiful house at St. Lucia. I have consented to second his wish on condition that he promise to accept a high position in the new police which must be organized immediately." We were amazed: the police in Italy, even in the northern provinces, is not a department into which educated men care to enter. But Mignogna, taking us aside, said, "You ought to insist on this. Mele is the sworn enemy of the Camorra, and he knows more about their haunts and method of action than any one else who belongs to our national party and who cares for unity and independence. The Bourbons [he really said Francischello] will now be enrolling the very worst of the crew; we must be on the alert, for though we are in Naples we are by no means masters of the provinces."

Well, we became the guests of the family of Signor Mele, and spent there all the time not engaged with the wounded. Once I remembered that Mazzini came there, though even he, knowing little of the social conditions of Naples, was surprised to find himself in the house of an "active inspector of police." From Mele we learned the true nature of the Camorra, though he did not trouble himself with its supposed political origin, or with its so-called historical antiquity. It is, he said, a band of malefactors who enlist the young to steal, to commit crime, to do their dirty work, to wound, to commit murder. All are ready to sell themselves to the highest bidder; and as the ramifications of the Camorra extend everywhere, and, one may say, have their centre in the prisons, exceptional measures, as they are called, are useless. We must not make martyrs of the leaders, but isolate them as much as possible, and, above all, inspire confidence in the honest citizens of all classes—make them feel that a national Government is strong enough to protect them even against the Camorra. And all the time that Garibaldi remained in Naples Signor Mele waged a constant, relentless war against the Camorristi, never threatening, nay, often warning them: "Don't do this; don't attempt that. The days for such things are over and gone. Better seek a trade and settle down to honest work." And Mele had enrolled a very able, active, and honest police force, which, alas, like many things Garibaldian, was dispersed and destroyed after the inauguration of the moderate governors and rulers in Naples.

Silvio Spaventa was appointed Minister of Police. From 1849 to 1860 he had passed his life in the galleys with Poerio and the other victims of Bomba. He was a constitutionalist, an anti-Garibaldian; he thought that the Camorra could be rooted out by expelling all who had taken part in the revolution and inaugurating a rule of iron. Mele differed with him, but they were old friends and worked each in his own way. Towards the middle of the year 1861, Mele had made great progress in getting at the chiefs of the Camorra, which, after Garibaldi's departure, reappeared in force. He knew that the papers of the sect were hidden at Pozzuoli; he went there, arrested a number of Camorristi, and seized all the papers. On his return to Naples he called for his little son, then at a day school—called him by name, and the boy answered from a window. A beggar woman asked for alms. Mele turned to give her something, and a young fellow cut his throat across. Mele fell dead; the assassin and the woman rifled his pockets of all the papers, leaving his watch, chain, and purse, and then escaped. The city was in a state of the wildest excitement, which the Camorristi fomented, spreading the rumor that Spaventa had persecuted Mele as a Garibaldian! Spaventa had to fly for his life, but the murderer was secured by Mele's friends, and, being a lad not eighteen, was condemned not to death, but to the galleys. After this, brigandage, fomented by the Bourbon and the priests, the Camorra in the city of Naples, and the so-called Mafia in Sicily, raised their heads again triumphantly.

The Government, especially in Sicily, resorted to horrible measures of repression. In Sicily, where conscription had hitherto been unknown, the priests aided the conscripts to evade the law; they hid in sulphur mines and in the mountains; whole districts were placed in a state of siege, and yet no headway was made. It was said that all the police were Maffiosi, that the guardians of the rural districts were the protectors of the association; many of these were changed. Then Parliament decreed an "inquiry," and members of all parties were chosen to go through the provinces and report. Aurelio Saffi was one of the members; Massari, Cavour's adorer and biographer, was the reporter for the Commission. Its chief use was to bring home to the Government and to the public a true picture of the abject misery, the inconceivable ignorance of the masses, the total absence of any care or thought for them by the proprietors of the soil. In Sicily, for many successive years, there were periodical revolutions, so called, which meant that the malcontents recruited brigands and malefactors to get up an occasion for rapine, plunder, and revenge.

After 1876, when Nicotera, the present Minister of the Home Department, first assumed that office, a radical change took place for the better. In Naples the Camorra was severely handled and the prison system changed. Education has done something, but not as much as the conscription. At this assertion the adversaries of standing armies will stand aghast; but it is a fact that the enrolling and taking from their miserable dens of vice, misery, and oppression of thousands of young men of twenty years of age, their sojourn in other parts of Italy with men of their own class (as the peasants furnish at least 80 per cent. of the entire army), but with quite other manners and customs and hopes and ideals, combined with strict discipline, good food, and daily instruction, has worked wonders both in the island of Sicily and on the Neapolitan continent. Brigandage as it used to be understood

is exterminated. The Camorra in Naples, though it still exists, is very much diminished. Criminals there are, as everywhere, but the *galantuomini*, as they are called, to distinguish them from the lazzaroni, no longer stand in awe of them or pay blackmail to protect their lives and their persons.

In the island of Sicily the late Government bent all its efforts to the elevation of the masses by education and by offering inducements to the best class of civil servants and elementary school-mistresses and masters to go and remain in the island. Many infant schools have been set on foot, and it is a fact that there is progress everywhere. In the present Cabinet there are two members who have distinguished themselves in the fight with these special products of centuries of misrule, of superstition and neglect—Nicotera, of whom I have already spoken, and Pasquale Villari, who has devoted a considerable portion of his life to seeking the causes of the degradation of the southern masses, and in propounding and asking others to propose remedies. Di Rudini was Mayor of Palermo during one of the most terrible rebellions, and he suppressed it thoroughly. As a large Sicilian proprietor, he probably knows as much as any other man what the Mafia really means. In his last useful and most interesting pamphlet, Signor Bodio gives, under the title 'Di alcuni indici misuratori del Movimento Economico in Italia' some very sad statistics concerning crime in Italy, in which, though he tells us it is diminished, Italy still ranks second, after Spain, in Europe. Taking all the crimes reported to or discovered by the authorities in the kingdom, he classifies them, and shows the annual average for ten years (i. e., between 1879 and 1889) for 100,000 inhabitants. First on the list stands murder—"simple murder, or murder with robbery." The Italians call all murder homicide. Highest on this black list stand Calabria, where every year 1,416 murders for every 100,000 inhabitants are committed; Sicily comes next, with 1,020; Sardinia, Rome and the Roman province, the Abruzzi, Campania, Molise, and Basilicata follow, all with their terrible four figures. The Marches and Umbria, Tuscany, which surprises one, come next, but with a vast diminution to 13 and 10 per 100,000. Liguria shows 9, Piedmont and Emilia 7; and Venetia is lowest on the scale, having but 5½. Thefts are highest in the Island of Sardinia and in the Lazio or Roman province, and again lowest in Venetia and in Piedmont. Immorality (or such crimes of that class as come under the action of the law) is least in Sicily, Emilia, and Piedmont; greatest, in a marked degree, in the old priest-ruled provinces of the Lazio and again in Calabria.

It is a gloomy picture after twenty years of unity and independence, but it is a great gain that the Italians do not shrink from their researches after crime, nor try to hide the hideous facts from the public. At the same time, their very earnestness in the repression of crime when it is met with, and the proof given even by these late statistics that it is vastly on the decrease, will account in great measure for their excitement and horror at the late tragedy in New Orleans. Ever since the bad old times of political oppression, the United States have been the favored and favoring asylum of the Italians, and their record on the pages of all the States has been one of a hard-working, sober, abstemious, and non-meddling immigration. Even the last report speaks well of them. With the exception of the Irish, with whom they do not generally sympathize—perhaps on account of the strong *pro-tempo*

ral proclivities of the former—the Italians have never come into open hostility with any section of the Americans. During the Civil War, of course, all the Garibaldians were intensely Northern. If in 1860 Garibaldi had accepted the offer of the Federal Government, two-thirds of his volunteers would have accompanied him to fight for the liberation of the slaves. But he was needed at home, and so nothing came of the project. Since 1870 the commerce between the two countries has increased gradually and greatly, as has also the emigration, until perhaps the last two years, when large numbers have emigrated in preference to the Argentine Republic and Brazil. The Sicilians have always had a preference for New Orleans, and their colony there is regarded with pride and hope at home. They have there ten patriotic and benevolent societies, with \$20,000 reserve. Only last January they sent home to their families in Sicily 300,000 lire (\$60,000), depositing other \$20,000 with the Consul. Their houses and steamers are well known; we have a list of some of the best names in Sicily. If we take the imports and exports of the island, we find that the United States are by far their largest consumers.

When the first news of the murder of Mr. Hennessy reached Italy, all the Italian press gave prominence to the fact; but assuredly it was not believed that the Italians had been the murderers. It was never thought for a moment in Italy that the murder was the deed of an association, because it was not believed that the Maffi, which is a home production, had been exported to New Orleans. When the trial came on, it was shown that money had been subscribed for the defence of the accused by the first American advocates, and, as far as we can see, there was not an Italian among the jury. Then came the news of the acquittal of six, the condemnation of three, the non-agreement of the jury for other three. Had the following news been of a second trial, *pazienza!* But a fiendish, cold-blooded murder of prisoners safe in prison, by American citizens, can no more be understood in Italy than would be the revival of the stakes and tortures of the Holy Inquisition. How is it possible, they ask, that, in a population of nearly 300,000 souls, a jury of twelve honest men and true could not be found? Is it credible that they could all stand in awe of a handful of miscreants, even admitting that there be an association of such? And when once they doubted of the justice of the verdict, why not arrest the jurors—why not have demanded a new trial?

It is evident that miscreants and malefactors have taken refuge in New Orleans. These are the clandestine emigrants who evade the police and the mayors because they want to escape the conscription or the law itself. It cannot be difficult for the large colony of wealthy, industrious, law-abiding Italians in New Orleans to establish a police of their own, to ascertain the name of every Italian in the State, his profession or occupation, his past, present, and probable future. Without committing any crime or even espionage, they can easily get rid of all would-be delinquents, as another colony of Italians have done in a large city annexed by another country.

J. W. M.

TALLEYRAND'S MEMOIRS.—III.

PARIS, April 1, 1891.

TALLEYRAND became Minister of Foreign Affairs at a moment when there was a general vague desire for a change in France. The

words liberty, equality, fraternity were inscribed on all the walls, but the things which these words expressed were nowhere. Everything was violent and arbitrary. Gen. Bonaparte was filling the scene, and he was full of ambition and of genius. When he started for the expedition to Egypt, Talleyrand confided to him that he was going to resign. Bonaparte asked for him the embassy to Constantinople, feeling that he might need him as a negotiator in the East. Talleyrand resigned and waited, in the country, for coming events.

When the revolution of the 18th Brumaire took place after Bonaparte's return, Talleyrand immediately accepted the Foreign Office. The battle of Marengo, June 14, 1800, made the First Consul a true sovereign of France as well as the master of Italy. By the peace of Amiens, France found herself reunited to all the great Powers. A concordat was signed between France and the Holy See, and Talleyrand took a great part in this reconciliation. Bonaparte obtained from the Pope a brief for Talleyrand's secularization. (It was dated June 29, 1802.) After the conspiracy of Dumouriez, Pichegru, and Moreau, Bonaparte changed his title of Consul for life to that of Emperor. Talleyrand says but little on the question of the execution of the Duc d'Enghien:

"The violent and inexplicable death of Pichegru, the means employed for obtaining the condemnation of Moreau, might be put to the account of policy; but the assassination of the Duc d'Enghien, accomplished merely in order to secure the alliance, by placing himself in their ranks, of those whom the death of Louis XVI. made fearful of any power not conferred by their hands—this assassination, I say, could be neither excused nor pardoned, and it never has been. Bonaparte was therefore reduced to boasting of it."

The Duc de Broglie tells us in a note that Talleyrand wrote a special chapter on the assassination of the Duc d'Enghien, but it will appear only in one of the forthcoming volumes. We will therefore not dilate on an event in which the part of Talleyrand has not yet been clearly defined.

It was not enough for Bonaparte to have been proclaimed Emperor of the French, not enough to have been consecrated by the Pope; he assumed the iron crown at Milan, and, instead of calling himself King of Lombardy, took the name of King of Italy. Napoleon formed a camp at Boulogne and threatened to invade England. He suddenly turned his army towards the Rhine. Talleyrand received orders to go to Strasbourg and accompany the headquarters. The day of the Emperor's departure for Strasbourg, Talleyrand dined alone with him; he says that he was much alarmed because after dinner the Emperor had a fit, the convulsions lasting a quarter of an hour. Half an hour after, Napoleon was on his way to Stuttgart. On arriving in that city, Napoleon wrote to him: "I am well. The Duke of Würtemberg came to greet me outside of the first grille of his palace; he is a sensible man." In a second letter, written the same day, he said: "I have news of Mack; he is marching as if I guided him myself; he will be caught in Ulm, like a villain." And so it was; the capitulation of Ulm was followed by the triumph at Austerlitz. During the negotiations, Talleyrand did all he could in favor of Austria: "You made for me at Presbourg," wrote Napoleon to him some time afterwards, "a treaty which much hampers me." The Emperor, however, gave him a mark of his satisfaction in naming him Prince of Benevento. Talleyrand never saw this Duchy of

Benevento, one of the ugliest parts of Italy, between Naples and Foggia, on the crest of the Apennines, but he kept it till the time of the Restoration.

Talleyrand was all along opposed to the revolutionary policy of Napoleon in Europe, to his annexation of provinces and kingdoms to France, to his distribution of crowns to members of his family. He was by nature a Conservative, and he saw in Austria a necessary remnant of the old Empire and a bulwark against the ambition of Russia. Napoleon, who was the armed representative of the Revolution "se fit un jeu des sceptres et des lois," to cite a verse of Béranger's. He knew no obstacles, he respected no tradition and no treaty. He effected one conquest after another; he could not stop in his destructive career. After Austerlitz came Jena; when Prussia was at his feet, he turned suddenly on Spain, and swore to destroy the Spanish branch of the House of Bourbon. "And I," says Talleyrand, "I swore to myself internally to cease, at whatever cost, to be his Minister as soon as we should be back in France."

Talleyrand was a sort of philosopher and moralist; his observations are often curious: "What a singular spectacle it was to see Napoleon, on coming out of the cabinet of the Great Frederic, where he had been writing a bulletin for his army, enter the dining-room and dine with Müllendorf, who was his prisoner, and Müller, the historian of the Prussian monarchy; offering them their salary, which they accepted, then entering his carriage and starting for Posen." Talleyrand negotiated the peace of Tilsit, after the famous interview which took place on a raft on the Niemen between Napoleon and the Emperor Alexander. The conditions imposed on Prussia were excessively harsh. "How," said one day Napoleon to Queen Louise of Prussia, "with such feeble means as you had, did you dare to make war on me?" "I will tell your Majesty: the glory of Frederic II. had deceived us as to our own power." "This word glory," says Talleyrand, "so happily placed, and at Tilsit, in the salon of the Emperor Napoleon, seemed to me very grand." Talleyrand showed many attentions to Queen Louise, and when he conducted her for the last time to her carriage, "Prince of Benevento," said she to him, "there are but two persons who regret that I should have come here—you and I. You are not sorry, are you, that I should carry away this opinion?"

The efforts of Queen Louise had been vain; Napoleon was inflexible. He flattered himself also that he had made a dupe of Alexander of Russia; "but time showed that the true dupe was himself." After a whole year spent in Germany, Talleyrand returned to Paris, with the title of Vice-Grand-Elector. He left the Foreign Office immediately; he did not agree with Napoleon on the subject of Spanish affairs. Napoleon avenged himself by choosing Valençay, which belonged to Talleyrand, as the prison of Ferdinand VII., his brother, and their uncle.

When the Emperor Alexander and Napoleon saw each other at Tilsit, they promised each other to meet again. It was a promise which Napoleon did not care to keep; but, after the disasters of the French in Spain, he was afraid that Austria would take advantage of the situation, and he felt the need of drawing nearer to Russia. The second interview took place at Erfurt. The Emperor Napoleon, though his relations with Talleyrand had already become very frigid, wished him to accompany him. He had persuaded himself that it would be useful to him, and that was

enough. The chapter of the Memoirs on the interview at Erfurt is an historical page of the first importance; it is, so far, the masterpiece of the work; it is a picture which is truly admirable. Napoleon moves in it, speaks, acts, as if he were alive. His wonderful genius, extending to everything, is painted in the most vivid colors. Talleyrand is sincere; he does not detract anything from Napoleon, though he already considers him a sort of public enemy, a curse to the world; his admiration is not diminished by his foresight and by a sort of curious antipathy which he, a representative of the past and of the old régime, feels instinctively for the *parvenu*, for the upstart who takes pleasure in the humiliation of the old dynasties. Talleyrand also appears in this chapter as a great writer; he has made for himself a style, not very correct, perhaps, but very personal, marked by extraordinary shades and delicacies, by attenuations and circumlocutions which all have their importance. I will give an instance of this style:

"I am tempted to believe, and the thought of it came to me at Erfurt, that there are secrets of flattery which are revealed only to princes—not to such as have been dethroned, but to those who have placed their thrones under a threatening protectorate. There is a reason for this. . . . The small princes wish that their courts should conceal the narrow limits of their power. Everything is magnified and puffed up about a petty sovereign—etiquette, attentions, flatteries. It is by the flatteries specially that he measures his greatness; he never finds them exaggerated. This way of thinking becomes natural to him, and he does not change it when fortune changes. If victory brings into his states, his palace, a man before whom he is himself no more than a courtier, he falls as low before the conqueror as he wished to see his subjects before him. He cannot form another idea of flattery. . . . I did not see, at Erfurt, a single hand pass nobly over the mane of the lion."

This page would not be out of place in La Bruyère or Pascal. It has often been said that at Erfurt, when Napoleon invited all the sovereigns and princes who had come there to greet him to the gala representations at the French Theatre (he had sent Talma and the whole troupe to the little German city), he had a *parterre de rois*. I forgot who said, "A *parterre*? you mean a *platebande*!" a joke which explains itself if you separate the word *platebande* in two, and which is meant to express forcibly the attitude of all the princes who were at Erfurt.

Talleyrand speaks at length of the conversations between Napoleon and Goethe, and, in his account, the greatest of all German writers loses nothing. The poet and the Emperor talked and discussed literary points with perfect ease. Napoleon told Goethe that if he wrote anything about the interview at Erfurt, he ought to dedicate it to the Emperor Alexander. "It is not my habit. When I began to write, I made it a principle never to compose a dedication so as never to repent of it." "The great writers of the century of Louis XIV. were not like that." "It is true, Sire, but your Majesty could not feel sure that they never repented of it." "What has become of that rogue Kotzebue?" "Sire, they say he is in Siberia, and that your Majesty will ask the Emperor Alexander to pardon him." "Well! do you know he is not my man?" "Sire, he is very unfortunate, and has much talent." "Good-bye, Mr. Goethe."

Napoleon chose with much care the plays which were to be represented before the sovereigns. He would have Corneille's "Cinna" because there are in it verses which absolve

the crimes committed by a great man who seizes the crown:

"Et dans le sacré rang où sa faveur l'a mis
Le passé devient juste et l'avenir permis.
Qui peut y parvenir ne peut être coupable."

"It is excellent," said he to Rémusat, "for these Germans who still talk of the death of the Duc d'Enghien; we must widen their morals. I don't refer to the Emperor Alexander; such things seem nothing to a Russian. It will be good for the men with melancholy ideas who fill Germany."

Correspondence.

A NEW ATTACK ON COMMERCIAL FREEDOM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The people of the United States have heretofore been engaged, in fighting for their rights as citizens of one country under the so-called commerce clause of the Constitution. That alone secures a pretty large class of those rights which people think are natural, and therefore suppose need no protection. The enemies have been the States which theoretically are foreign to each other. We are now meeting a new phase of the efforts to destroy the freedom of intercourse within the United States for the purposes of trade. The famous oleomargarine legislation is a specimen. Another is seen in the case of Bremer vs. Robinson (128 United States 78, January 19, 1891), where the Legislature of Virginia is convicted of an evasion of the Constitution by prohibiting the importation of fresh meat, under the device of an inspection duty of one cent a pound. And when we recall the numberless instances in which traders from other States have been sought to be excluded, it is no exaggeration to say that loyalty to the great principle of the Constitution—the unity of the people of the United States for purposes of trade—does not exist, and is enforced by the power of the Supreme Court only.

We have now to meet statutes that violate the rights of a State's own citizens. Will not the community be surprised to learn that any State has the power to make it criminal for one of her citizens to make any contract with a citizen of another State? About this the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania have no doubt whatever (*Com'th vs. Biddle*, 27 Weekly Notes of Cases 289). A mill-owner, by letter and check drawn in Philadelphia, insured his mill in a Massachusetts corporation. He was convicted and fined as for a misdemeanor. The Supreme Court, declaring there was no doubt as to the power of the Legislature to make this act criminal, discharged the defendant because, and only because, they thought the law did not mean to make it criminal in him, but only in the insurer or his agent, to make such a contract.

It appears to me that this suggestion to the unscrupulous of a mode of compassing their ends is one of the most dangerous that have as yet been made. The rights of citizens are most carefully protected against discriminations in favor of citizens of other States by section 2 of article ii. Did it not occur to the framers of the Constitution that it might be necessary to secure them against discrimination in the form of prohibiting dealings with persons out of the limits of their own State? Consider what this means. To foster domestic resources, it may be made felony to invest out of the State. A sentence that recognizes this power certainly deserved more consideration than it appears to have received.

For if we consider the *ratio decidendi* as the decision (which, as a guide to inferior courts, it must be taken to be), it is a distinct decision that a contract by letter with a foreigner, unless he is licensed to deal by the State in which the letter is written, may be made criminal in the writer.

The only refuge lies in the commerce clause of the Constitution of the United States. Who of us have been aware of this? That it is ample, I have no doubt. The only thing in the way is an epigrammatic sentence of Mr. Justice Field, in *Paul vs. Virginia*—that insurance is not commerce. For the purpose of that case it may be perfectly correct, but it has the vice of all generalizations. The way to test this is to ask, Could any one conduct commerce if forbidden to insure? It would be possible, certainly, but practicable, certainly not. A person thus hampered would be in the same position as one prohibited from buying on credit or drawing bills.

The subject deserves an essay; but to those who can appreciate the consequences that are involved in such a dogma, sufficient has been said to attract attention to the subject.

R. C. McMURTRIE.

PHILADELPHIA, April 15, 1891.

THE CANADIAN ELECTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read with interest and pleasure the editorial paragraph, upon the result of the late general elections in Canada, which appeared in your issue of March 12, and with a certain degree of surprise the animadversions upon that paragraph, by Mr. A. Ferguson of Ottawa, published in the *Nation* of the 26th ultimo. Looking at all the circumstances of the case, you were justified in saying that the elections had "resulted in a practical defeat of Sir John Macdonald and the Conservative party," and you were—without any qualification—correct in the statement that "although they have secured a numerical majority, they have met very serious losses."

The Government went into the conflict with a majority of 49 and came out with a majority which Mr. Ferguson places at 33 or 35, but which will probably be found to be less than 30. They had at the time of the dissolution 57 members from Ontario, as against 35 supporters of the Liberal party. Now they have 47, as against 44. In Quebec, where the Government had a majority of 5, the Opposition now count 37 members against their 28. The very serious losses, in the two great central provinces, indicated by those figures, are not made up for by the gain of five seats in the eastern maritime section of the Dominion. Mr. Ferguson tries to break the force of this showing by going back to the elections of 1887, when Sir John Macdonald was kept in power by a comparatively narrow majority, instead of comparing his strength after the recent elections with his strength immediately before. When we look at the tremendous influence wielded through the whole length of the Dominion—from Nova Scotia to British Columbia—by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, and know that it was exerted to the utmost on behalf of the Government; when we are made aware that the Conservatives controlled an enormous campaign fund obtained from the protected manufacturers, from contractors, and from other sources; and when we consider the fact that the false cries of "Treason" and "Annexation" were deliberately raised against the Liberal party to prejudice them in the eyes of

a loyal people, and that, owing to the shortness of the campaign, those cries were successful in a greater degree than would naturally have been expected, we cannot fail to see that Sir John and his party have, as you said, met with a "practical defeat." Had the result of the elections indicated the true sentiment of the voters on the respective policies of the two parties, the defeat would have been absolute and decisive.

You were also, in my humble opinion, perfectly correct in saying that the result of the elections betokened "the early breakdown of protectionism in the Dominion." Ontario and Quebec were the strongholds of the National Policy, as protection is absurdly miscalled in Canada; there are few manufactures in the Lower Provinces, and almost none in Manitoba, the Northwest Territories, or British Columbia. Outside of Ontario and Quebec, the overwhelming majority of the people have always been in favor of a low tariff. The result of the elections has been to leave the Government, which went to the country with a majority of twenty-seven in those two provinces, in a minority of six. To the ordinary mind this change would indicate an early breakdown of the protective policy. As a matter of fact, prominent Conservative papers have admitted that the elections have shown that the existing tariff needs reform in the way of reduction; and the Rev. Dr. Grant, the distinguished Principal of Queen's University at Kingston, Ontario—himself a Conservative—tells us that "The National Policy in its present shape has won its last victory. Trade restrictions against the whole world cannot be maintained. . . . We must extend our trade relations with the United States or with the rest of the world."

It is somewhat singular that Mr. Ferguson should now claim that, instead of, as you had said, rebuking Sir John Macdonald for putting forward the pretence that the Dominion would, under reciprocity with the United States, lose the power of self-control, "the electors by a large majority rebuked the Opposition leaders for embracing the unpatriotic policy of unrestricted reciprocity," whereas during the campaign neither Sir John nor, so far as I am aware, any of his followers discussed the merits of the policy of unrestricted reciprocity at all. Sir John, in his manifesto to the electors, deliberately confounded unrestricted reciprocity with commercial union, and then claimed that such a policy would lead to annexation; and his example was followed with great zeal and energy during the campaign, in the press and on the platform, throughout the country by his lieutenants. It may be mentioned in passing that in Nova Scotia the Liberals were further credited with the intention of handing over the inshore fisheries to your fishermen, when, as a matter of fact, their policy did not profess to deal with the question of fishing rights.

You will perhaps allow me to explain briefly the origin and nature of the much maligned Liberal policy of unrestricted reciprocity. The so-called National Policy had failed to make every one rich and happy as it had been guaranteed to do, and the stronger the grip of the policy upon the country grew, the stronger grew also the feeling of dissatisfaction of the many who were being legally plundered for the benefit of the few. The only remedy suggested by the Government party was the proverbial hair of the dog that had bitten—more protection; higher duties on goods already protected, and duties upon farm products and other articles as yet untaxed. Our experience in this respect has been the same as yours, al-

though our present tariff falls considerably short of the perfection of Major McKinley's masterpiece. The Liberal party, remembering the great benefits conferred upon both the United States and the British North American provinces by the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854, thought that the best remedy for existing evils was to be found in a renewal of that treaty, either in the original or in some modified form. There was every reason to believe that the United States would not agree to a renewal of the Treaty of 1854, or to any treaty which did not include the manufactured as well as the natural products of the two countries. In the session of 1884, Sir John Macdonald, speaking in the House of Commons upon a resolution in favor of reciprocity, introduced by Mr. Davies, a Liberal member from Prince Edward Island, used the following language:

"Unless the United States will come at some time or other to the conclusion that they would be willing to enter upon a reciprocity treaty not only for our natural productions, but for our manufactures as well as our natural products, we will never have a treaty. I am quite satisfied the United States will not agree, the country will not agree, the voice of the country will be against a repetition of the treaty of 1854. Then, sir, the only question is this: 'Can we have a treaty on a larger basis?'"

The feeling of the Republican leaders in the United States at a somewhat later date could be gathered from a passage in a speech made by Mr. Blaine at Lock Haven, Pa., in October, 1886:

"Some time ago," said Mr. Blaine, "one of the eminent men in Canada asked me to use what little influence I possessed to urge upon our people the propriety of a reciprocity treaty which it was understood, he said, our Minister was then negotiating at the Court of St. James's. I asked how it would do to make a clean thing of it and let into the United States free of duty everything they produced, everything we produced to be let into Canada free of duty. . . . I said, 'Will you let in our cotton and our products of leather, iron, steel, and the thousand and one others of our products?'"

The Liberals (in 1888, if my memory is not at fault), seeing no chance of obtaining reciprocity in natural products alone, decided to adopt the course indicated by Sir John Macdonald and Mr. Blaine, and to advocate reciprocity in manufactured as well as natural products; and accordingly, in the session of 1888, Sir Richard Cartwright introduced a resolution in the House of Commons favoring what is now known as unrestricted reciprocity. I may remark that, at a gathering of the Liberal members at Ottawa held shortly before to consider the fiscal policy, commercial union was disapproved of by an overwhelming majority, on the grounds that the United States customs duties are much too high, and that, under that system, Canada would lose the power to frame her own tariff as to the world outside herself and the great Republic. The Liberal policy differed from the Conservative in offering to add manufactures to natural products, as to which both parties were substantially agreed. I do not propose to deal with the difficulties which might arise in the practical working of the scheme of unrestricted reciprocity, if it was agreed upon by the United States and Canada; but the statesmanship of the two countries could, I think, be trusted to find means to overcome them. If the United States declined to enter into a treaty providing for reciprocity, the Liberal policy would be, not annexation nor commercial union, but such tariff reform as would lighten the burdens of the farmers, lumberers, miners, fishermen, and all classes of the community outside the factory-owners, while leaving enough incidental protection to enable any manufacture suited to the country

to hold its own against foreign competition.

This fiscal policy of the Liberal party, so just, reasonable, and patriotic, was described by Sir John and his followers as being identical with commercial union and as leading necessarily to annexation. True, the treaty of 1854 had not tended in that direction, and one could see no reason in the nature of things why the addition of manufactures to the free list should bring about so marked a change in results; but that was the ground taken by the Conservatives. As our Canadian comic paper, *Grip*, put it, free trade in natural products was exuberant loyalty, while free trade in manufactures was rank treason. The Liberal policy had been before the country for three years, and had been discussed at length in Parliament, and to some extent in the press and on the platform, and its disloyalty was not made an issue until the premature dissolution. Clearly then, Mr. Editor, you were perfectly right in saying that the Conservatives "raised the cry of annexation to frighten the timid."

Allow me also to express my entire concurrence in your declaration that the result of the elections did not "betoken any near approach to annexation." There are, as far as I know, but few annexationists in Canada, and there is no party favorable to annexation. We can admire the manifold greatness of your country and the numerous good qualities of her population, and even realize that the Dominion would reap considerable material benefit from a political union with the republic, without feeling tempted to abandon our present connection with the mother country, our substantial independence, and a constitutional system which we prefer to that which you esteem so highly. We Liberals are as loyal as our Tory neighbors, but we think that loyalty alone is not a life-sustaining food, and that we in Canada could, without hurting it, indulge in reciprocal free trade with the United States—even without restriction—to the great advantage of our people.

May I be permitted to add that, even though unrestricted reciprocity might be the most desirable thing for the United States as well as for Canada, a limited reciprocity would also be good, although in a less degree, and good for both parties? Free trade is like mercy: "It blesseth him that gives and him that takes"; and although the general opinion in your country is that the balance of advantage under the treaty of 1854 was decidedly with the British Provinces, my impression is—speaking without book—that the increase in our importations from the United States was in pretty nearly the same ratio as that of our exports to that country. It is, therefore, to be hoped that, even should unrestricted reciprocity be for the present out of reach, owing to the objections of the Imperial or the Dominion Government, your Administration and Senate may see their way to a loosening of the bonds which now impede the natural circulation of the life-giving current of trade between Canada and the United States. Two such countries as those should be able to treat electioneering speeches and newspaper bluster as so much froth or fog which hides for the time being the true character of the stream that rolls beneath. Whatever visionary theorists or interested politicians or monopolists may say, the good feeling and common sense of people on either side of the boundary line declare that the greater the intercourse between the two countries, the better it will be for both.

Your obedient servant, L. G. POWER.

HALIFAX, NOVA SCOTIA, April 4, 1891.

ARCHIEPISCOPAL ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the tests of a strictly correct style, it must be admitted that uniformity in assigning the adverb *only* its due position is one of the most trustworthy. In other words, when predicable of a writer, it may be considered as affording a presumption that he has learned to conform to the most approved precedents; and it also gives evidence, in a small way, of a sense of logical exigency. Very few authors of note have been so heedful in this matter as Lord Macaulay. On the other hand, very few, in days recently gone by, have been more conspicuously the reverse than the late Archbishop Trench. From the seventh edition, published a short time ago, of that prelate's 'Select Glossary,' quotations in support of this contention, with the proper collocation of *only* indicated by brackets, here follow:

"Enormous. Now *only* applied [] to that which is irregular in excess." P. 95.
 "Which, indeed, is *only* agreeable [] to the proper meaning of the word." P. 99.
 "In English, we *only* retain the word now in [] the second of these uses." P. 130.
 "Which, however, is *only* fully intelligible [] by a reference to the Greek." P. 141.
 "The connotation of moral baseness *only* accrued to the word [] by degrees." P. 172.
 "The more honourable use of 'officious' now *only* survives [] in the distinction," etc. P. 194.
 "He is *only* to be perfectly understood, [] when we keep in mind," etc. P. 212.
 "At present we *only* 'prune' [] trees." P. 222.
 "Women are intended to be wives, and *only* find the true completion of their being [] when they are so." P. 301.
 "Debate . . . was *only* true to its etymology (*débatre*) [] so long as," etc. P. 66. See also pp. 12, 61, etc.

That any one who could print, and year after year go on reprinting, the like of this should, in many other respects, fall short of being exemplary in his manner of expressing himself, while it can occasion no surprise, might almost be expected. And here are some samples of Dr. Trench's peculiarities, all of them taken from the little book cited above, making it clear that, however diligent he was in discoursing on our mother-tongue, he was, in employing it, by no means a master:

"I am *persuaded* [convinced] that, in the decomposition, word by word, of," &c. Preface, p. vi.
 "The compensations which we look for are most *capable* of being found." *Id.*, p. vi.
 "Witnessing for the good, or for the evil, which *have* been unconsciously at work." *Id.*, p. viii.
 "Under one aspect or *another*." *Id.*, p. viii. Also in p. ix.
 "According to the desynonymizing processes *ever* at work in a language." P. 71. Also in pp. 192, 302.
 "Drench' and 'drown,' though desynonymized in our later English, were once perfectly *adequate* to one another." P. 85.
 "Ecstasy . . . is no longer used as an equivalent to madness." P. 89.
 "Having *gotten* this application of the word from the Vulgate." P. 108.
 "From the *seldom* use of it." P. 147.
 "It *needs hardly* to say that a 'Jacobin' was once a Dominican friar." P. 152.
 "It formerly implied a *great deal more* and worse than it implies now." P. 162.
 "The two businesses were very closely *joined*, would often run in, to one another." P. 165.
 "There lies ever, in 'obsequious,' at the present, the sense," etc. P. 192. Also in p. 211.
 "As it is written three times out of the four on which it occurs." P. 197.
 "We have *forfeited* the full force of the statement, 'God is no respecter of persons.'" P. 205. Also in p. 289.
 "He was 'popular' once, *not* who had acquired, but *who* was laying himself out to acquire, the favour of the people." P. 213.

"Terms of *extremest* scorn." P. 221.
 "Which once conveyed *intensest* moral reprobation." P. 252. "In which all *chiefest* excellencies," etc. P. 259.
 "Once it *did but express* [expressed only]," etc. P. 250. "Words which at first *did but express*," etc. P. 286.
 "It conveyed, also, of old, a much deeper moral reprobation than [it does] now or in the Middle English it did." P. 252.
 "Men will be content, *for long*, to confuse," etc. P. 256.
 "He . . . whose stupor and folly is *connected* with," etc. P. 258.
 "Having now no other *but* a literal sense." P. 285.
 "Almost all nations regard with disfavour and dislike that which is *outlandish* [foreign]." P. 286.
 "Perverved wisdom on *his part* to whom it was given." P. 304.

Anything, in these quotations, to which attention is directed by italics and otherwise, would be marked, I suppose, by a competent teacher, as a blemish, if it occurred in a composition by a lad of sixteen or eighteen.

According to Mr. T. L. Kington Oliphant, "Dr. Trench is a good Teuton, and is, therefore, heartily abused by professors of fine writing." Of such professors and their doings I know nothing; but I think I know what sort of English is approved by persons of rational and cultivated taste, with their disrelish for fatuous fads, conceited eccentricities, and unscholarly carelessness. Be this as it may, if the characteristics of "a good Teuton" are found in such affectations, insipid archaisms, contortions, pomposity, violations of idiom, and false grammar as have been instanced in this letter, it will be allowed, most assuredly, that the less we have of so repulsive a thing as Teutonism, the better.

It is common to see our language, as contaminated by Americans, made a subject of derision. No apology, then, need be offered for having shown that its use even by eminent Britons is not lightly to be accepted as secure from adverse criticism.—Your obedient servant,

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, February 15, 1891.

Notes.

LONGMANS, GREEN & Co. will publish directly a Life of Charles Macklin, by Edward Abbott Parry, for William Archer's series of "Eminent Actors."

Gebbie & Co., Philadelphia, have in course of publication 'The American Continent and its Inhabitants before its Discovery by Columbus,' by Annie Cole Cady, with illustrations by Henry N. Cady and others. Eight of the twenty-five monthly parts have already appeared. The narrative is addressed to a group of boys and girls, and begins with the formation of the earth.

Prof. George F. Wright's 'Ice Age in North America' is about to appear in a third edition, with a supplementary chapter, from the press of the Appletons.

A third edition of Sanborn's 'Life of John Brown' is on the point of being issued by Roberts Bros., Boston.

Mr. H. T. Firck's 'Pacific Coast Scenic Tour' has reached a second edition within five months of its first publication by the Scribners, and has evidently found favor with tourists.

Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's recent contributions to Harper's Magazine on Southern California make a volume of very entertaining and instructive reading, in which scenery, society, and statistics are pleasantly mingled. All the conditions of living there affecting the invalid, tourist, or permanent resident are

discussed with a great variety of detail touching climate, soil, natural resources, methods and effects of irrigation, practical results of fruit culture, houses, homes, and the general advance of civilization. One of the most notable chapters describes the author's visit to the Grand Cañon of the Colorado. These interesting papers have now been published by the Harpers in a book of very attractive appearance, amply and beautifully illustrated, and bearing the title of 'Our Italy.'

The anti-pirate edition of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' (Macmillan) is offered at an incredibly low price, which brings it within reach of every one who buys a book, viz.: \$2.50 for two volumes. It is the plain duty of every intelligent citizen to possess himself of this work, and to buy only the author's edition.

P. Blakiston, Son & Co. have nearly ready 'A Handbook of Local Therapeutics,' by many competent hands.

An 'Advanced Geography,' with seven full-page relief maps, besides many others, has been prepared by Miss Eliza H. Morton for John E. Potter & Co., Philadelphia.

Griffith, Farran & Co., London, announce 'Younger American Poets, 1830-1890,' edited by Douglas Sladen,—with an appendix of Younger Canadian Poets, by G. B. Roberts of St. John, N. B.

A 'History of British Guiana' has been undertaken by Mr. James Rodway, F.L.S., the librarian of the Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society of that colony. The work will be in three volumes, and will cover the period from 1668 to the present time. It will be printed and published by the Argosy Press, Georgetown, Demerara. Volume i., bringing the history of the colony down to the end of the last century, will be issued during the course of the present year. Mr. Rodway has also undertaken to edit for the Hakluyt Society Capt. Lawrence Kemys's account of his voyage to Guiana in 1596, for which he was "set forth" by Sir Walter Raleigh. As we have already announced, Mr. im Thurn, now Government agent of the Northwest District of British Guiana, is editing Sir Walter's 'Discoverie'; the edition published by the Hakluyt Society in 1850, and ably edited by Sir Robert Schomburgk, being now out of print.

Under the title 'West Indian Yarns by X. Beke' (alias ex-Magistrate), the same Argosy Press has just issued an amusing collection of stories of West Indian life. It is no secret that the author of the work is Mr. George Hammond Hawtayne, who holds a high official position in that colony. The writer being a man of much humor, with a fund of anecdote, his book is one to be read.

The late Arthur Middleton Reeves published for his second book (through Sampson Low, 1890) 'Lad and Lass,' a story of life in Iceland, which he had translated from the Icelandic of Jón Thordarson Thoroddson—'Pittur og Stúlka,' as it is called in the original, which appeared as far back as 1850. It is still the best Icelandic work of fiction, and Mr. Reeves's translation is on the whole the most readable in any tongue, without disparagement of the excellent German version by Poestion. There have been two Danish versions, one of which was feebly rendered into English, under the title 'Sigrid,' in a New York edition. Mr. Reeves completed his translation soon after his return from Iceland, but with some diffidence and only after urging.

The Popular Edition of Sir Walter Scott's Journal just issued by the Messrs. Harper makes a single duodecimo volume of about 600 pages in fair type. The binding is a sober brown and quite presentable. Substantially

the public is as well served by this as by the more costly and elegant edition.

Students of zoölogy are under lasting obligations to Professor Lankester for bringing together in a handbook the 'Zoölogical Articles contributed to the "Encyclopædia Britannica"' (Charles Scribner's Sons). To his own essays on Protozoa, Hydrozoa, Mollusca, Polyzoa, and Vertebrata, he has added the Sponges by Sollas, the Planarians by Von Graff, the Nemertines by Hubrecht, the Rotifera by Bourne, and the Tunicata by Herdman. Each of the writers is an authority of the first rank in his special field. The longest chapters are the Mollusca, of sixty-three pages, and the Protozoa, of thirty-eight. As the articles are concise, profusely illustrated, and handsomely printed, the book is well adapted to the needs of such persons as seek a general knowledge of animal life, and it will prove a great deal more helpful to teachers than the ordinary manual of zoölogy on which so many of them depend.

Mr. Charles Bird's 'Elementary Geology' (Longmans) is an English book not adapted to use in this country. It is the printed form given to a series of lessons in geology by an English teacher, arranged to fit his own opportunities with English rocks. Whether it will be more useful to other English teachers than such books as Geikie's or Green's, is open to question. In this country there can be little need of it. Few references are made to American examples, and the most important of these are not satisfactorily illustrated. The view of the Cañon of the Colorado is from an old drawing, long superseded; the "valley showing signs of former glaciation" is an unfortunate and somewhat notorious example of the effect of exaggerating a photographic original, taken in the Rocky Mountains, although its locality is not mentioned here; and the little outline of the delta of the Mississippi is set upside down in the text. The only good that may come from the advertising of these foreign and geologically provincial books in this country is, that our own teachers may be tempted to prepare books suited to our own geological provinces.

It may be a matter of taste more than of judgment, but our own preference is not for books in the style of 'Through Magic Glasses,' by Arabella B. Buckley (now Mrs. Fisher), which is published by the Appletons. It is intended to give an account of the discoveries made by telescopes, microscopes, spectroscopes, and so on. Manifestly a wide range of reading has been traversed in its preparation—not shallow though wide, nor yet deep. The facts selected for description or explanation are interesting; they appear to be generally correct in statement; but heterogeneous is the very shortest word to describe their relationship, and they are artificially presented through much of the book in a series of imaginary conversations between a teacher, who calls himself a magician, and his scholars. This story part of the book with its quotation-mark style is tiresome; the direct form of statement in 'Life and Her Children,' by the same author, is preferable, and, as tested by actual home experiment, is more attractive to young people.

'Artistic Homes in City and Country, with Other Examples of Domestic Architecture,' by Albert W. Fuller and William Arthur Wheeler, architects (Boston: Ticknor & Co.), is the fifth edition, considerably amended, of a collection of examples which are exclusively the work of its authors, and so one of a class of books which are in a way professional advertisements; and it is one of the best. Its seventy plates show a certain progress in

style that is interesting, and contain exteriors and plans of all degrees of excellence, from the stateliness of plates 1-3 to the shabby-genteel of 36-38, which is perhaps one of the "other examples." American houses are, very likely—to the particular persons who live in them—what the authors here assert, the most comfortable and convenient in the world; and it is quite possible that they are the most "healthful." These specimens show more of their good qualities than do most that we see published, but they exemplify some of the bad, and in particular cling tenaciously to one of the worst, the wretched American trick of putting the water-closets in the bath-rooms.

We have already reviewed Guillemard's 'Life of Ferdinand Magellan' in the English edition. It has just been brought out for this market by Dodd, Mead & Co.

'The Portuguese on the Northeast Coast of America, and the First European Attempt at Colonization There: A Lost Chapter in American History,' is the title of a paper by the Rev. George Patterson, D.D., read before the Royal Society of Canada and printed in its transactions as well as issued separately to a small extent. It offers much evidence to show that the Portuguese were probably foremost in the sixteenth century in exploring the coasts of Labrador, Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia; that they first made known the true configuration of the Bay of Fundy and the shores of New England, and that, possibly before Cartier, they sailed up the St. Lawrence to Montreal and gave it its name. Many of the Portuguese names are still retained in these regions, and a list of them is given in an appendix. In regard to the colony sent out in 1521 from Vianna in Portugal, Dr. Patterson believes that certain traces of it have been found at St. Peter's in Cape Breton. Here are earthworks much older than those which the French built at the same place, and in one angle of them has been discovered a hooped cannon of the kind used in the sixteenth century. Several reproductions of ancient Portuguese maps illustrate the paper.

The principal article in the last number of *Petermann's Mittheilungen* is an orographic sketch of the Kapaonik Mountains, a range which forms a part of the southern boundary of Servia. In the course of it the author, Dr. W. Götz, remarks on the extraordinary sparseness of the population in this part of the country. "One can go on beaten paths," he says, "for half-a-day without meeting a human being or seeing a village, in spite of abundance of water and trees." The scientific results, especially botanical and entomological, of several Danish expeditions to the west coast of Greenland in the years 1889-1890 are given by H. Rink. It appears that the movement of one of the glaciers was seventeen feet in twenty-four hours. The map of the number shows the region explored by Maj. Wissmann and Dr. Wolf in the southeastern part of the Congo Free State, and is accompanied by cartographical remarks by Dr. B. Hassenstein.

A recent number of the London *Times* calls attention to the fact that Belgium is seeking not only to obtain a monopoly of the trade of Central Africa, but to absorb the territory also. By the Berlin Conference the northern boundary of the Congo Free State was fixed at 4° north lat. But one of its officers, Capt. Van Gele, has recently made a treaty with a powerful chief whose possessions are in 5° north lat. This movement northwards is to be supplemented by a formidable expedition, consisting of 300 soldiers and 5,000 carriers, under the command of Capt. Van Kerkhove, which left Stanley Pool early in February last, it is said,

"to reach the Bahr-el-Gazelle and to annex in the King's name the Nile Valley." Over all this country, however, Egypt still retains her rights, and in order to reach it the Belgians will have to pass through territory allotted by the last Anglo-German agreement to British influence. The *Times* concludes by saying that King Leopold "ought to realize that the line of action which is being pursued by the administration of the Congo Free State will inevitably lead to its break-up and its ultimate partition among those European Powers that cluster round its borders."

A late issue of the London *Athenæum* reproduces, from a recent acquisition of the Department of MSS. in the British Museum, a letter written in Italian by the painter Rubens, on June 29, 1628, in which he confidentially communicates tidings of the discovery "ultra Tropicum versus Austrum" of "un gran paese per non dire nouum orbem," referring to Australia, the existence of which was kept secret by the Dutch East India Company.

A 'Biographical Notice of Maria Mitchell' appears as an off-print from the xxvth volume of the Transactions of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. It is from the pen of her brother, Mr. Henry Mitchell, whose long and distinguished service in the Coast and Geodetic Survey is well known. Mr. Mitchell's scientific training stands him in good stead as a writer, manifesting itself in great lucidity and directness of style and in a restraint of eulogy which is most wise in a case where the simplest statement of facts is the most effective praise. The glimpse that one gets from his pages of the family life of the Mitchells at Nantucket is wholly charming.

The will of Mr. Barnum, most famous of showmen, proves that his public benefactions are to be extended. The amiable and philanthropic side of his character is well shown in a portrait published in July, 1889, by *Sun and Shade* (New York: Photo-Gravure Co.).

The *Classical Review* is to give much space in the next few numbers to the recently discovered treatise of Aristotle, and will welcome contributions of emendations or of notes from American scholars.

We have received from M. Édouard Rouveyre, 76 rue de Seine, Paris, six numbers of the pocket guide to present values of fine and rare books, etc., 'Petit Manuel du Bibliophile et du Libraire, donnant la valeur actuelle des livres anciens et modernes, recherchés et appréciés,' etc., edited by B. H. Gusserson. There will be twenty-four parts annually, indexed at the close by authors and titles.

The American Economic Association has awarded prizes for essays on Women Wage-earners to Miss Clare de Graffenried of Washington, D. C., and Mrs. Helen Campbell of New York. Miss Graffenried's essay will probably be published by the Association.

—John Jay, wrote the renegade minister and spy, John Vardill, to his employers, "is possessed of a strong understanding, tho much perverted by a study of the law, joined to a temper naturally controversial. You can sooner gain him to your opinion by submitting to be confuted by him, than by a direct attempt to convince him. He is obstinate, indefatigable, and dogmatical; but by his courage, zeal, and abilities as a writer and speaker, has much popularity, and leads the other delegates in Congress." That Vardill's estimate was not unfair, is proved by the contents of the second volume of the 'Correspondence and Public Papers of John Jay' (Putnam's). The two long reports to Congress of his mission in Spain, and his first report from Paris, occupy one-half of

the volume, and are known through the Sparks edition, which Prof. Johnston has closely followed. They paint a dreary picture of the incidents of a hopeless mission. Misled by the too sanguine Arthur Lee, Congress blundered into constituting a mission that was distasteful to the Spanish Government, and, by giving no opportunity for an expression of opinion, forced that Government to neutralize the error by methods that savored strongly of trickery. Jay was heavily handicapped from the first. He was a beggar for money and supplies, and these were grudgingly promised and doled out with exasperating and insulting conditions; and yet he was expected to secure what Spain was determined never to part with—the navigation rights of the Mississippi. Under these circumstances, to threaten was out of the question; to assert positively, was dangerous; and Jay had no resource but to dance attendance upon a minister who was everything but frank and open in his dealings, and whose politically sensitive health (and his secretary was similarly affected) forbade him to touch upon the American business. Wearied with delay, and keenly feeling the humiliating absurdity of his position, Jay welcomed his summons to Paris, and carried with him suspicions of bad faith on the part of both France and Spain which exerted great influence in the peace negotiations.

—As in the first, the absence of notes by the editor is the conspicuous feature of this second volume, yet even to one familiar with the history of this unfortunate mission the record needs further illustration. This could be given without touching the hotly disputed question of Jay's real weight in the ultimate negotiations for peace. In only a single instance has the editor used the opening offered, and he has then inserted what we suggested properly belonged in the first volume. The correspondence of the French and Spanish Governments would have supplied a curious commentary of the text. There are many new letters from Jay, but only one (to Egbert Benson) of importance. Letters from Benson, Livingston, and Morris, and a few more letters from Mrs. Jay and Kitty Livingston, form the positive contributions of interest and value. The sombre tone of the letters is rarely lighted up with so much as a pretence to humor. Margaret Livingston boasts that she was able to raise some melons "by ye meerdint of watching every morning to kill the buggs"; and Mrs. Izard confesses that late suppers are not good for her. Even Jay slyly remarks that the French Ambassador appeared fatigued and worn down by business, looking "as I have seen some members of Congress look after two years' attendance." The proof-reading is not so accurate as it might be, and errors are frequent. The printing of Thompson, as Secretary of Congress, is inexcusable, and the use of the dollar sign (\$) is an anachronism, for it did not come into use till after the Revolution.

—In his 'Life of Washington,' written for the "American Statesmen" series, Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge infers that Washington was, at the time of his appointment to negotiate with the French Governor with respect to the encroachments upon British rights on the Ohio, of good reputation. A correspondent who has lately been delving among the state papers preserved in the Record Office, London, writes as follows:

"Mr. Lodge says: 'He was a young man for such an undertaking, not yet twenty-two, but clearly of good reputation' (vol. i, p. 64).

Mr. Lodge will be glad to know that Washington's reputation, even at that time, was, in fact, one of distinction. Writing to the Lords of Trade on the 17th of November, 1753, Gov. Dinwiddie said: 'I have sent out a gentleman of distinction to the French camp, on the Ohio, with my letter to the Commanding Officer, to know the reasons and by what authority he invades His Majesty of Great Britain's territories, in the time of a solid peace subsisting between the two Crowns.' In another despatch of the same date, the same Governor writes: 'I have commissioned Mr. Washington, a Major and one of the Adjutants of the Militia of this Dominion, to proceed to the French camp,' etc., etc. (See the papers in the Public Record Office, London, *America and West Indies, Colonial Office*, 667, *Virginia*, 1750 to 1780.) A copy of Washington's journal of his mission is preserved in the same bundle of documents. It was with reference to his proceedings on that occasion that he wrote to Gov. Dinwiddie on the 25th of April, 1754: 'I hope my proceedings in these affairs will be satisfactory to your honour, as I have to the utmost of my knowledge consulted the Interest of the Expedition and good of my Country, whose Rights, while they are asserted in so just a cause, I will defend to the last remains of Life.' This last utterance became the Father of his Country. May one suggest to those in search of fresh information as to Washington's early history, that facts might possibly be gleaned from the official papers in the Record Office, and especially from the despatches of those under whom Washington served?"

—The letter H fills still another volume, the twenty-sixth, of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan). It has already required two and a fraction, and it is not yet out of the third vowel. The Royal Henrys of England and Scotland, beginning with Henry II., take up a quarter of the volume; the Herberts 69 pages, the Hills 43. The longest article (11 pages) is devoted to Bothwell (James Hepburn), without disturbing the common reputation of the man. So Mr. Lee identifies Pembroke with the "W. H.," beggetter of Shakespeare's Sonnets, and Mary Fitton with the "dark woman." So Rowland Hill is credited with the invention of penny postage, though the son of a rival claimant is stirring up the press to transfer the honor. The influence of relatively obscure lives is shown in the case of Prof. Henslow, who was the scientific sponsor of Darwin, and secured him the post on the *Beagle* which determined his life-work. The endeavor of the Dictionary to keep up to date (though not obliged to this course by its original scheme) is shown in the case of the Earl of Carnarvon, who died last year. Henry William Herbert ("Frank Forester") is a connecting link between the two English-speaking nations separated by the Atlantic. A list of his more important works accompanies the sketch of his life. Sir Francis Hincks is another American figure. Sir James Hillyar commanded the *Phæbe* in the waters of Valparaiso when, in 1814, he fought the *Essex* under Porter. He was then only a captain, but he died rear-admiral, as Farragut, midshipman on the *Essex*, died admiral, first of the grade in our American navy.

—The question of the authenticity of the Talleyrand Memoirs, which was raised by M. Aulard in the *Revue Bleue*, and, upon other grounds, by M. Henri Weichinger in the *Monde*, has drawn from the Duc de Broglie a brief, smooth, almost evasive note, which appears in the *Revue Bleue* of March 28. The Duke says that he has already answered M. Aulard's question in the preface to the Memoirs; that the published text is the only one left by M. de Bacourt; that its exactness has been certified by the persons to whom Talleyrand bequeathed all his papers; that the scrupulous delicacy of M. de Bacourt has never been

put in doubt; and, lastly, that as soon as the publication of the Memoirs is complete, the text from which they are printed shall be put in some public depository for everybody to see. Upon this, M. Aulard returns to the charge with fresh vigor. M. de Broglie has answered but one of his questions, he says, and that indirectly—though the question is a most important one. He does admit, though he plays a little with the word "text," that he has not the original Memoirs of Talleyrand, but only a copy of them. No shadow of suspicion rests upon the honor of the Duke, but the duties and responsibilities of the editor of a "text" sit but lightly upon his shoulders. As to M. de Bacourt, M. Aulard smites him hip and thigh, recounting the truly piteous, as well as pitiful, story of the mutilation and betrayal of Mirabeau in Bacourt's edition of the correspondence between Mirabeau and Lamarck. Just as he constructed a conservative and anti-revolutionary Mirabeau, so now he may have felt it his duty to cut out of Talleyrand's Memoirs everything that showed him to have been a friend of the Revolution, and to supply instead some stupid interpolations—a piece of trickery easy to beseen by everybody except the man who should have been the first to see it, the Duc de Broglie himself. And M. Aulard ends by asking the Duke, not whether the original manuscript is in his possession, since obviously it is not, but whether he has himself collated the copy from which he prints with the original, and assured himself of its exactness. Until this question is answered, M. Aulard says, it will be proper not so much to call in question the authenticity of the Memoirs as to affirm certainly that they are not authentic.

—Soon after his note to the *Revue Bleue* was written, the Duc de Broglie sent a communication to the *Moniteur*, in which he says that the will of M. de Bacourt mentions only the copy of the Memoirs, and says nothing of the original manuscript. On the other hand, we have, in the *Paris*, an interview with the Comtesse de Martel, a grandniece of Bacourt's, who is better known, perhaps, to most readers as "Gyp." She says she well remembers the Talleyrand manuscripts, and her uncle's extreme care of them. They were contained in three large chests, and she saw them taken away by MM. Andral and Chatelain after her uncle's death, together with "quatre livres, reliés en peau," her uncle's copy. She believes the published Memoirs not to be authentic, from her memory of the originals, or complete, since her uncle told her there would be fifteen volumes of them. Her suspicions point to M. Andral as the mutilator of the manuscript. In much that she says she is corroborated by the testimony of her sister, Mme. de Mirabeau, and of her cousin, M. H. de Bacourt.

—In Senator Stefano Jacini, who died on March 25, Italy has lost one of her ablest and most disinterested patriots at a moment when she can ill afford to do so. Jacini was born in 1827 in Casalbuttano, in the province of Cremona. His first work, entitled 'La Proprietà Fondiaria e le Popolazioni Agricole in Lombardia,' won the first prize given by the Society for the Encouragement of Science and Letters in Milan, and he was appointed member of the Lombard Institute of Science in Milan. When the scarcity of crops almost produced a famine in Lombardy, the Archduke Maximilian begged him to study the question, and he then wrote "a genuine indictment of Austrian rule in Italy," 'The Economic Conditions of the

Valtellina,' which was translated into English, and, though it brought him much censure for having anything to do with the hated *Straniero*, in reality did as much as more noisy patriots to secure his downfall. After the Crimean War, Cavour begged Jacini to draw up a report on the position of the Austrian Government in Venetian Lombardy, and this report was translated into various languages and served Cavour at the Paris Congress. After Cavour's death Jacini was made Minister of Public Works, and to his initiative and extraordinary persistence Italy owes the St. Gothard Railway, on the completion of which he was created Count. The war of 1866 was for him, as for many, a complete disillusion. He refused to return to Parliament, and wrote his famous pamphlet, 'Sulle condizioni della cosa pubblica in Italia dopo il 1870.' He was, above all, an enemy of centralization, seeing the necessity of national unity, but maintaining that the different provinces would be far better under a sort of federated government. He maintained that this system would be more economical, that it would develop latent and local talent, and that it would be found impossible long to govern the nation from the congested Parliament, first in Florence, then in Rome. Jacini would have had much more weight and influence in Lombardy and the rest of Italy had he not been such a staunch opponent of the transfer of the capital to Rome. On this point, Dante himself, could he return, would not be listened to. When the Liberal Government set on foot the inquiry into the conditions of the rural classes, Jacini was Chairman. His enormous wealth and life spent in these studies made him most competent for that post, and even to-day his writings on this subject would be well worth publishing not only in Italy, but in all countries where the agricultural classes form part of the social problem. Indeed, his writings published altogether will form a valuable addition to the history of the Italian *Risorgimento*.

—Astronomical Bibliography has received a marked addition in the recent publication, by Dr. Ralph Copeland, Astronomer Royal for Scotland, of the Catalogue of the Crawford Library of the Royal Observatory, Edinburgh. James Ludovic, the Earl of Crawford, began the collection of the library nearly twenty years ago for his private observatory at Dun Echt, near Aberdeen; the nucleus being the library of the late Charles Babbage. Life insurance and annuities are thus very fully represented, as subjects in which Babbage was greatly interested. Also, the collection is very rich in transactions and proceedings of the learned academies, and in materials for the literary history of the exact sciences; and in particular was no occasion lost of securing essays or tracts on comets. In this department of astronomical literature the Crawford Library is among the fullest in existence. It contains, further, a number of very rare works transferred from the Library at Haigh Hall, Lancashire, and the whole was presented to the Royal Observatory, Edinburgh, by the Earl of Crawford in 1888. Among American astronomers, those whose works are represented by the largest number of entries are Pickering (30), Young (19), Newcomb and Langley (17 each), Loomis (16), H. Draper and Holden (15 each), Todd (13), and G. P. Bond, Gould, and W. A. Rogers (8 each). The Catalogue is a large quarto of 500 pages magnificently printed by Milne and Hutchison of Aberdeen, and published at Edinburgh by authority of H. M. Government. It cannot fail

to prove useful to students of astronomy and kindred sciences in consulting the extensive literatures of these subjects.

RECENT POETRY.

ONE may look in vain in Mr. Aldrich's new volume, 'The Sisters Tragedy' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), for anything that really rivals the same author's "Fredericksburg," one of the few poems which our great civil war bequeathed to literature. Nevertheless, the new volume belongs to that epoch of greater maturity which is so marked in this poet. He has had the rare happiness of outliving his early fame—as a dainty secondary poet, a Leigh Hunt, a writer of debonair verse—and of rising to the rank of a true artist, who commands his own power and neither belittles it nor is overcome by it. Among the London parlor poets, for instance, there is no one except Austin Dobson, and he only in his "Once at the Angelus," who is to be compared with Aldrich. When he touches love at its lightest, it is with a cadence that makes it immortal:

"Pillared arch and sculptured tower
Of Ilum have had their hour,
The dust of many a king is blown
On the wind, from zone to zone;
Many a warrior sleeps unknown.
Time and Death hold each in thrall,
Yet is love the lord of all;
Still does Helen's beauty stir,
Because a poet sang of her." (P. 53.)

And when, on the other hand, he makes the same passion the theme of tragedy, he condenses into a few pages a drama like that of "Paulina Paulovna," which recalls by its strength the first indication of Aldrich's dramatic power given in his brief play "Mercedes," published some years ago. The title-poem of the present volume seems a shade less powerful, perhaps from its suggesting that wonderful delineation where Guy de Maupassant, under the name of "La Confession," handles a scene and situation similar to Mr. Aldrich's, yet more tragic. But it is only a difference of degree, not of kind; the skill is there.

We would gladly find in 'The Lion's Cub, and Other Poems,' by Richard Henry Stoddard (Scribners), evidence of a like maturity of growth; but it suggests rather the ashes of wayward and burnt-out fires. The same is true, and painfully true, of "Joaquin" Miller, who in his 'In Classic Shades' (Chicago: Belford-Clarke Co.), essays to keep up his jaunty air, and to jingle the old bells, but they have ceased to charm, if they ever charmed; and his autobiographic interludes only make the case sadder. With that pervadingly bad taste which always belonged to him, he has chosen for his title-poem one of the very cheapest bits of doggerel in the volume; and the reader is only propitiated by the fact that he dedicates the whole book to his little girl as his "most indulgent critic."

On the whole, we prefer our sophisticated but untamed "Joaquin" to Mr. Rudyard Kipling, whose poems have certainly some ring and animation, but have, even more than his prose, that garlic flavor which makes a very little of them go a great way, and makes the reader himself soon wish to go a great way off. Mr. Kipling's volume is called 'Departmental Ditties, Barrack-Room Ballads, and Other Verses' (U. S. Book Co.), and the strongest poem in it, unquestionably, is a rhyme of the Indian Civil Service from the point of view of "The Galley Slave." The genuine quality of English manhood comes out in this picture of the possible swamping of the nation's galley in some future tempest and of the fidelity of her crew:

"She will need no half-mast signal, minute-gun, or rocket-flare;
When the cry for help goes seaward, she will find
her servants there,
Battered chain-gangs of the orlop, grizzled drafts of
years gone by,
To the bench that broke their manhood, they shall
lash themselves and die.

"Hale and crippled, young and aged, paid, deserted,
shipped away—
Palace, cot, and lazaretto shall make up the tale
that day,
When the skies are black above them, and the decks
ablaze beneath,
And the top-men clear the raffle with their clasp-
knives in their teeth." (P. 251.)

That is strong writing; yet he would be a bold man who should predict any serious literary future for Mr. Kipling. Mere strength is not enough. "Où il n'y a point de délicatesse, il n'y a point de littérature."

Sir Edwin Arnold's 'Light of the World' (Funk & Wagnalls) will be read by thousands in the perennial hope—thus far always disappointed—that the Scripture narratives can be made available for the uses of lofty song. Up to this time no one has succeeded in awakening other than unfavorable comparisons with the simple beauty of the original records. Joined with this obstacle to success has been unquestionably that fault of excessive rapidity of composition which this poet's injudicious friends have ere now claimed as a merit. Whole pages of the volume read as if written during a sleepless night, or as a task before breakfast, and as fast as the pen could go; nor are there any passages so salient or so haunting as to break the level in any conspicuous way. The only personality that is presented with any marked strength is that of Mary Magdalen; and the introduction of the Eastern Buddhist takes from the simplicity of the whole, without increasing its power. Mr. Stoddard prefaces the volume with an introduction, but it is not easy to see why, since Sir Edwin Arnold had already ten American readers where Mr. Stoddard had one; and this preliminary work appears wholly perfunctory and adds nothing of value.

Of recent English poems, Mr. Alfred Austin is printing a revised edition of his collective works (Macmillan), and sends forth new issues of 'The Tower of Babel,' 'Prince Lucifer,' and 'Savonarola.' With the utmost labor, he still fails to reach the human heart, or at least—what he, perhaps, would regard as a somewhat different thing—the American heart. There is no contemporary poet about whom the estimates of the two English-speaking races are so far apart. This we should be inclined to regret but for the extraordinary want of moral courage which has led him to withdraw from the new edition of 'Savonarola' the original preface—far stronger and more valuable than anything in the poem itself—in which he pointed out the curious analogies between the career of his hero and the narratives of the New Testament. This was written in no spirit of irreverence, but perhaps the offence was in doing it at all; for in this edition the whole thing vanishes, and a tame inscription to Henry Irving takes its place.

Mr. Stevenson, in his 'Ballads' (Scribners), shows the weakness, which he has before made apparent, of having no fixed standard of his own, but one easily modified by the influence of lesser men. These bloodthirsty and repulsive ballads of the Southern Seas are what Kipling and Haggard would doubtless call "manly"; but to our thinking the only really manly thing in the book is the "Christmas at Sea," on the very last pages. Mme. Darnesteter, who, as Miss Robinson, wrote poems of much dainty skill and of a sickly charm, has not lost in art nor gained in healthfulness with marriage. The volume called 'Lyrics,' selected from her works (Stokes Company), has

a little new matter, but contains mostly what has appeared before. 'Poems, Ballads, and Bucolics,' by H. D. Rawnsley, M.A. (Macmillan), is the title of a simple, sincere, and animated collection, mostly of poems on deeds of heroism, both in England and America. It is dedicated to Phillips Brooks, "with gratitude for all he has done for the religious thought of England," and also "to those Americans who remember that their forefathers sailed from Lincolnshire." Many of the poems are in the strong and racy Lincolnshire dialect, already made familiar by Tennyson. It is curious that so few traces of this dialect should survive in any part of America.

In Mr. F. Leyton's 'Shadows of the Lake' (London: Kegan Paul), and Mr. John Arthur Blaikie's 'Love's Victory' (London: Percival), we have the work of cultivated and poetic minds, rather than of poets, although the latter's monody on Thomas Chatterton is perhaps the best tribute yet paid to that pathetic memory. Mr. A. H. Bullen closes his valuable studies of Elizabethan literature with the 'Poetical Rhapsody' of Francis Davison (London: George Bell). It is the least attractive of his volumes; the really striking poems which it contains have long since been embraced in the anthologies, and the rest belongs rather to the history of poetry than to poetry itself. The same may be said of Mr. C. L. Kingsford's admirably thorough and satisfactory edition of 'The Song of Lewes,' that invaluable though scarcely poetic Latin epic of the "Barons' War" in the thirteenth century (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). 'Poems by V.' (Mrs. Archer Clive) (London: Longmans) were first published half a century ago, and were praised in the *Quarterly Review* in their day. Since then their author has achieved a wider reputation by her remarkable novel 'Paul Ferroll'; and now, since her death, the original volume is reprinted with a few additions. It is full of cultivated thought and of gracious, womanly character. 'Women Poets of the Victorian Era,' edited by Mrs. William Sharp (London: Scott), is a thorough remoulding of the same editor's work, entitled 'Women's Voices,' in a previous series. It has a new and somewhat more elaborate preface, including, however, passages from her former introduction. The work is confined to English poets, as it should be, and is fairly well done, with some valuable biographical details at the end. It is a pity that the reader should open, at the very first page, on a misprint reproduced from the same editor's earlier volume, in Harriet Martineau's fine verses called "Onward." In the couplet

"As cave-drops swell the streams
Day-thoughts feed nightly dreams,"

the whole antithesis is lost by substituting "mighty" for "nightly." But we may well thank Mrs. Sharp for giving to the reader, in a form so cheap and compact—for the book appears in the "Canterbury Poets" series—so many good things, one of the best of which is Isa Craig-Knox's fine ballad, "The Brides of Quair." In ballad-making, at least, our English and Scotch sisters have an advantage over their American kin-folk.

It is a curious coincidence that just as Mr. Cable brought into use the rich coloring of the French Creole regions of the South, the Canadian poets began timidly to use the same resources among the Frenchmen of Canada; and the best fruit of the new effort is to be found in 'Pine Rose and Fleur de Lis' (Toronto: Hart), by S. Frances Harrison, first known as "Serrano," and author of 'Crowded Out, and Other Sketches,' based on Canadian life. The

pretty French phrases and refrains come like the notes of a guitar into our Saxon symphony. One of the most effective of these poems is addressed to Maurice Thompson, and takes up the refrain of his appeal to England to "call him home." It would appear from this address that the author has never herself been in England; yet some of the pages are filled with that curious feeling called loyalty to a queen. Less semi-exotic in allusion, though coming under an author's name that seems exotic enough, is 'Rose-Brake Poems,' by Danske Dandridge (New York: Putnams). These poems have a flavor of the woods of Virginia, and show some personal power besides. Miss Isabella T. Aitkin entitles her volume 'Bohemia, and Other Poems' (Philadelphia: Lippincott), but most of the verses seem rather to have been written in a morgue or a dis-ecting-room, so incessant and prosaic is the delineation of fleshly horrors and tortures. One of the leading poems is called "A Day's Diary in the Infernal Regions." It is to be said to her credit, however, that she has omitted the demon of lust, who rages irrepressibly through the utterly repulsive volume called 'The Witch of En-dor, and Other Poems,' by the late Francis S. Saltus (Buffalo: Moulton). Oh, Charles Baudelaire, for how much hast thou to answer, both in thyself and through thy cheaper imitators! They all recall Joubert's verdict on Parny, "Des blasphèmes mielleux, ou plutôt des ordures vernissées, d'où le blasphème découle avec douceur, comme un miel empoisonné."

There lie before us many recent volumes of American verse. Of most of them it can only be said that the best thing to be gleaned from them is some bit of local coloring, which may justify the existence of the particular page where it occurs. Thus Mr. Isaac R. Penny-packer gives us, in his 'Gettysburg, and Other Poems' (Philadelphia: Coates), a touch that no one else has previously given, on the passing of the wild geese at night:

"Then stood we shivering in the night-air cold,
And heard a sound as if a chariot rolled
Groaning down the heavens; and lo! o'erhead,
Twice, thrice the wild-geese cried, then on they sped,
O'er field and wood and bay, toward Southern seas;
So low they flew that on the forest trees
Their strong wind splashed a spray of moonlight
white:
So straight they flew, so fast their steady flight.
True as an arrow they sailed down the night;
Like lights blown out they vanished from the sight."
(P. 66.)

Here is something worth writing: no matter whether it be great or small, it gives us something that we otherwise should not have had; and even the mere indication of a poetic theme, without the actual treatment, may do this, as when Mr. Charles Lemuel Thompson, in his 'Etchings in Verse' (Randolph), gives a poem on "The House-Top Walk" (p. 65)—the platform on the roof of some old Nantucket house, from which the sailors' wives and daughters looked out for the ships. He here offers us a text so novel and striking that we hardly care whether his subsequent sermon be good or poor. So in 'Arcade Echoes' (Philadelphia: Lippincott), a small volume of poems selected from the *Virginia University Magazine*, we should know by the very themes and the love-making that we were near the Potomac. Capt. E. L. Huggins, U. S. A., at least gives us 'Winona, a Dakota Legend, and Other Poems' (Putnams), though his heart is evidently more in his French and Spanish translations than in the Indian lore. James Whitcomb Riley's 'Rhymes of Childhood' (Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.) is, of course, mainly pervaded by local coloring, modified also by the land of childhood; and his "Raggedy Man" seems somehow, one can hardly tell why, to have struck a chord in the

national consciousness. But when Mr. Norman de Lagutry—if that be the real name—issues a volume called 'Love Conquereth' (Sewanee, Tenn.: O. T. Porcher), and inscribes it briefly "To My Sewanee," who can help seeing that he would have honored his Sewanee more effectively by a single tint of local color, a single trait which belonged appropriately there and nowhere else, than by any three words of mere sentiment? It is not that this is the only thing to be done, but for one who is beginning his career it is one of the best things. Just above one's own door, wherever it may be, lies the star to which Emerson advises every man to hitch his wagon.

MADISON'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION.

—I.

History of the United States of America during the Second Administration of James Madison. By Henry Adams. 3 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

IN these three volumes devoted specifically to the second term of Madison's Administration, and forming the seventh, eighth, and ninth volumes of a continuous series, Mr. Adams brings to a close his copious and critical history of the sixteen years covered by the dynasty of Jefferson and his successor. The narrative before us relates almost exclusively to a period of war, when the annals of a country, however tedious they may have been in the piping times of peace, are expected to quicken with enthusiasm and emotion, because they ought to be full of impassioned feeling raised to the height of great endeavors in policy and in arms. Yet in spite of the fact, remarked by the greatest of the historians of Greece, that war is apt to assimilate the passions of men to the condition in which it places them, Mr. Adams finds it no easy task to kindle his own enthusiasm or the enthusiasm of his readers by a detailed recital of either the political or the military history of our war with England from 1812 to 1815. It is only in the description of a few brilliant battles like those of Lundy's Lane, of Chippawa, and of New Orleans; or in the circumstantial account of the two naval victories plucked from the jaws of defeat on the Lakes by the superior intelligence of Perry and Macdonough; or in the vivid picture of a few naval duels which, as fought on the high seas, came to demonstrate the superiority of American skill in gunnery and seamanship, that this story quickens with the fire and vivacity of picturesque narration. It is not that Mr. Adams does not make a careful study of the battles he describes—they are described with extraordinary minuteness and precision—but that most of the battles themselves, for the want of military genius and strategic sagacity on both sides, seem too often to be hardly worth the critical pains bestowed on them. It is not that the battles here portrayed were petty and inconsequential skirmishes compared with the Titanic encounters which shook the continent and fixed the gaze of the civilized world during our civil war, but that the war itself was fought with much languor by a divided people, and was conducted with much impotence by a Government which for long years had proclaimed that "peace was its passion," and which had taught the lesson of peace so well that it found much difficulty in attempting to indoctrinate the people with either the necessity or the expediency of war. With nearly equal grounds of complaint against England and France, the country had so long recoiled from the impossibility of coping with both, that it came in the end to look with fear

and trembling on the necessity of fighting either. It is no surprise that this state of irresolution was not ended by a declaration of war, and that it spread its influence through the military operations of the war itself; for the vote of Congress, in the very act of declaring the war, had revealed a precise inversion of economic interests and of political convictions on the part alike of those who favored the war and of those who opposed it. The war was professedly waged in defence of "free trade and sailors' rights," but the Southern States, which favored the war, had neither commerce nor seamen. The Eastern States had both, but for this very reason they opposed the war, as being more a hindrance than a help to their prosperity.

This state of turmoil and of vacillation was betrayed as well by the civil as by the military conduct of the Administration. In the very heart of the war, the Administration came before Congress with a virtual confession that the physical forces of the nation were not equal to the occasion, and that the surest signal of public safety was to be found not in the sword but in the shield. An embargo policy was again openly avowed (after all the discomfitures it had brought on Jefferson), as the best available instrument of self-defence and of foreign coercion. The efficacy of an embargo, as an instrument of defence, had for years been deeply imbedded in the minds of Southern politicians, and the roots of the same idea, as Mr. Adams pertinently observes, were not wholly eradicated from the Southern mind down to so late a period as the advent of our civil war, when Southern statesmen flattered themselves with the belief that an embargo put on "King Cotton" would lead to a forcible intervention of the European nations to put an end to any war which deprived them of a staple indispensable to their economy. The Southern statesmen of 1813 believed in like manner that a self-imposed embargo would produce a like coercive effect in the interest of peace between England and the United States—for how could England subsist without agricultural products?

The Embargo Act was passed on the 17th of December, 1813. But hardly had the measure been extorted from a reluctant Congress when news reached America of the great battles fought at Leipzig. The meteoric star of Napoleon was visibly waning. The whole European continent, except France, was again open to British commerce, and the Federalists of New England were quick to seize the opportunity which the embargo offered for making the war doubly odious in a political and in an economical sense—in a political sense because it made the United States appear thereafter as the impotent and single-handed ally of Napoleon, and in an economical sense because American ships were left thereafter to rot in their docks, without the poor pretence which in the beginning had lain at the root of this "terrapiin policy," as it was contemptuously called in the political dialect of the times. What the Administration had mistakenly devised as a shield, now came to place a sword in the hands of its political adversaries.

For the desperate condition to which the country was reduced at the nadir of its depression during the war, Mr. Adams holds that the Federalists of the New England States were mainly responsible. Notwithstanding the fact that nearly one-half of the people in the five New England States gave a loyal support to the war, they were politically paralyzed by the other and majority portion which opposed the war. Among those who opposed the war, one-half, he thinks, wished to stop it by some

peremptory and independent action of the States, but were held in check by the other half, which threatened to desert their leaders at the first overt act of treason. It is easy to see how this divided state of opinion in New England tended to paralyze action in all directions without accelerating it in any. The anti-war party obstructed positive and efficient measures looking to a vigorous prosecution of the war. The schism in the bosom of the anti-war party itself obstructed positive and efficient measures looking to the forcible suspension of the war. Procrastination and indecision ruled the hour at all points.

In this attitude it was that the Republicans were compelled to put their best hope in the *vis inertiae* of our democratic institutions, and that the Federalists, in their contempt for democracy, were compelled to wait in hope that the Administration would perish from the political gangrene lodged in its vitals, and would not need to be overthrown by a violent concussion. Mr. Adams thinks that at one time the Federalists of that day had good reason to believe that, what with their own obstinacy, the obstinacy of England, and the obstinacy of Madison, the conjuncture might come when the national Government would have to cease its functions, and when the New England States would be left free to resume their sovereign powers. Allying their political hopes with what they believed would prove the adverse fortunes of the war, the Federalists of the Pickering school could not suppose that England, after she had broken the power of the French autocrat, would consent to any peace which should not involve the overthrow of Madison and his party. Intimations to this effect were frequent in the London press, and ardent Federalists, not only in New England but also in New York, Maryland, and elsewhere, seized on these intimations as prefiguring the end of the desolations wrought by democracy in Europe and America. Gouverneur Morris, in an oration delivered in New York city to celebrate the overthrow of Napoleon, employed all his powers of melodramatic eloquence to portray in Napoleon a typical representative of the same French democracy which had killed "our beloved ally," Louis XVI., and deluged Paris with the blood of the French Revolution. He rejoiced to think that "the long agony of democracy was over." Hanson of Maryland, the extreme Federalist "who had been mobbed and nearly killed in Baltimore in June, 1812, only to be elected to Congress in [the following] November," was free to express the opinion in 1813 that "a few hard blows struck [by the enemy] in the right place would be of great service to the country" by putting an end to the domination of Madison.

Yet at the very time when Massachusetts, Vermont, and Connecticut were showing in their organic capacity (because of the Federalist preponderance) such a marked dissatisfaction with the Federal Government, the martial spirit of New England, though recruited only from that half of her population which was politically crippled by the other half, continued to maintain its ancient renown "in the serious work of fighting," as Mr. Adams phrases it. In evidence of the fact that New England, with her hands politically tied behind her back, might still justly claim her full share of credit in the "glories" of the war, such as they were, the author cites the fact that it was not Virginia, Kentucky, or Tennessee regiments, but regiments from Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, "which routed the Royal Scots at Chippawa, and bayoneted the British artillerymen at

Lundy's Lane, and stormed Drummond's intrenchments at Fort Erie."

Intense Federalists, while mocking at the military incapacity of the Administration, did not hesitate to lament the weakness with which the war was conducted by England, as offering less prospect than could have been wished that the British Ministry would be able to conquer a favorable peace. Hanson of Maryland wrote to Pickering towards the close of the year 1813, that "the war by its own generative powers" might come to create the means for its support if the British Government did not quicken its military pace. He specially feared that the vanity of the American people was in danger of being elated by "these brilliant naval victories." Mr. Adams caustically observes that the vanity of a people that could be flattered by such "glories" as the war gave in 1813, "must have felt the want of flattery to an unusual degree." He thinks it was not so much the "glories" as the "disgraces" of the war that roused public sympathy in support of the Government, and that the Federalist opposition was quelled, not so much by the demonstrated vigor of the Administration, as by "the slow conviction of the people that, come what would, the nation must be preserved." The political situation in the autumn of 1814, when A. J. Dallas was called to succeed Gallatin in the Treasury Department, is thus described:

"Earnest in temper and emphatic in tone even to the point of tears and tropical excitability, Dallas came to Washington as though to lead a forlorn hope—caring little for parties and less for ambition, but bent upon restoring to the Government the powers that his friend Gallatin, too easily as he thought, had allowed to slip from its grasp. The difficulties of the Treasury when Dallas took charge of it were not easily exaggerated. His own description, given some six weeks afterwards, made no disguise of them. 'The Treasury,' he said, 'was suffering under every kind of embarrassment. The demands upon it were great in amount, while the means to satisfy them were comparatively small, precarious in collection, and difficult in their application. . . . The means consisted (1) of the fragment of an authority to borrow money when nobody was disposed to lend, and to issue Treasury notes which none but necessitous creditors or contractors in distress . . . seemed willing to accept; (2) of bank credits, chiefly in the South and West, rendered largely useless by the suspension of specie payments; (3) of the current receipts of taxes, also useless because paid chiefly in Treasury notes. The Treasury was bankrupt. The formal stoppage of payments in interest on the debt was announced, November 9, by an official letter from the Secretary, notifying holders of Government securities in Boston that the Treasury could not meet its obligations, and that the Government was unable to avert or to control this course of events! After that date the Treasury made no further pretence of solvency.'"

Woman's Work in America. Edited by Annie Nathan Meyer, with an introduction by Julia Ward Howe. Henry Holt & Co. 1891. Pp. vi., 457.

THIS book is composed of a series of essays by different authors, undertaking to give an account of what has been done by women in the departments of education, literature, journalism, medicine, the ministry, law, the State, industry, and philanthropy. The last head is divided into charity, the care of the sick, the criminal, the Indian, anti-slavery, the W. C. T. U., and the "Red Cross." We have nine topics, but from the fact that education is treated in three separate essays, dealing respectively with the East, the West, and the South, eighteen essays. The editor states that only those branches of woman's miscellaneous work have been selected for headings

"which have been denied her," and therefore it is surprising to find the "care of the sick," literature, and industry among the list. It may be asked why trade is not one of the lines in which she has appeared, and we should like also to know about the women who have given their time to art, in any of its forms. The book is closely printed, and as there are more than 400 words on a page, it will be apparent that it contains a great deal of reading.

It were much to be desired that women should have all roads freely thrown open to them, if only that we might get rid of the assertive tone which is apt to mar the effect of whatever they write. When we come to the question of work for the good of the world, it is hardly worth while to stop to say whether it be done by man or woman, so only that it be done. In other words, in view of the greatness of the work, the question of sex as well as that of individuality ought to disappear. Again, it is knowledge of the appliances for work that we want, not the names of women who have been most prominent, and here we have to find grave fault with many of the essays in that they consist of nothing but names. Too often an impression that the writers are advertising themselves and each other annoys the reader anxious for the simple facts. A sample may be found at the foot of page 184, in a quarter where we should least expect it, and in the account of the W. C. T. U. it is offensively conspicuous. The classification of the book is faulty, and many of the essays necessarily run into or overlap each other; as, e. g., those on the care of the sick and on medicine, those on industry and charity. It was the chief function of the editor to prevent this, and to give the book to a busy public with the unity which every volume should have.

It must also be said, though unwillingly, that the English of the book as a whole is not only diffuse and weak, but sometimes positively ungrammatical. The punctuation is so careless that it is often quite impossible to understand the meaning of a sentence without many attempts, and the proof-reading is inexcusably careless. On page 47, for instance, the retiring President of Wellesley is spoken of as "Miss Palmer." It is much to be regretted that so strong a personal tone should run through the preface and that careless writing should permit there such a sentence as this: "It is considered highly supererogatory that a woman should be taught to stand upon her own feet when the adjacent shoulder answers the purpose as well." And we are at a loss as to what may be referred to by the expression, also in the preface, "the awful statistics of unmarried women in the United States." The introduction is very short, only a page and a half, and is too full of words to be quite clear. A sentence from it, "All this belongs to the record of things which, once measurably true, have become fabulous," will perhaps show what we mean when we say that it lacks clearness. It is a pity that a book which aims at showing that women are entitled to more influence than has heretofore been accorded them, should try to establish this claim in poor English.

What was to be said of education should have been compressed into one article, and not spread out into three, containing many irrelevant facts. If the great public schools of England are to be spoken of, it is not well to give the impression that Rugby was the last established. There is too little said of normal schools and of their influence, and a trifle too much of Barnard College, which yet cannot be said to have any, though it is placed before

Vassar in the record. We are not told, as we might have been, that what was the first normal school in the country has had a woman at its head now for many years, and nothing is said of the two women who in that place have done so much for the teachers of Massachusetts. Neither is any mention made of the fact that the first woman in the world to be Principal of a normal school (that of St. Louis, Mo.) was a graduate of this same school, from which also the overlooked large school of Miss Kelly in Charleston, S. C., draws its inspiration indirectly. The Mary Institute in St. Louis deserves mention as a department of Washington University.

The article on law is one of the most interesting in the collection, and makes good use of its twenty-six pages, no one of which can be spared. Its clearness and business-like tone may come from the fact that a woman cannot hold her place in that profession by any other means than that of ability. There is no nonsense about her work there, and if she cannot stand, she must leave. It is amusing to be told, in the account of a woman lawyer (p. 241), that "her argument was relieved of the superfluities that frequently characterize the verbose utterances of more experienced attorneys of the male sex." The plea for the necessity of women to defend their own sex under certain trying circumstances is well put and deserves attention. The essay on medicine, generally well written and arranged, is valuable as giving results accomplished in the way of hospitals, and not being a mere list of names. It is, however, marred for the general reader by Latin and technical terms which would be in place in a medical journal. The article on industry deserves more than a passing notice. To many, the account of the Lowell mills and their operatives will be new, and the story of the establishment of the various women's homes is highly valuable. The essay on charity by the well-known hand of Mrs. Lowell is well planned and carefully written, and emphasizes as it should the need of personal contact with those who need help. The record as to the care of the criminal makes use of its opportunity to enforce the need of police matrons in all cities, and does it wisely and well. The articles on the Indian and the W. C. T. U. are too much special pleading for special societies, and that on the State is only a lecture on the demand for the franchise. The essay on literature has already become known through the pages of the magazine in which it appeared this last autumn. It is a "chaos of bright phrases," and unfortunately has not as many verbs as it has sentences.

The fact that editing is a profession, and that it cannot be done with profit by any amateur who may desire to take it up, could not be more clearly demonstrated than by this book. To be an editor is to change chaos into a harmonious creation, and good intentions cannot make up for the lack of training. There is material enough here to make a really valuable book if it had been edited. As it is, the skilful work of some contributors is marred by the careless and incompetent sketches of others; there are many errors which ought not to be, there is much repetition, and the bulk of the volume might have been reduced one-half to advantage.

Racing Reminiscences and Experiences of the Turf. By Sir George Chetwynd, Bart. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co.

In the first of these volumes Sir George Chetwynd gives an interesting account of the prin-

cipal English racing events of the years from 1869 to 1890. Half of the second volume is devoted to matters more or less connected with horseflesh, and the remainder gives *in extenso* the examination and cross-examination of the plaintiff in the celebrated libel suit of Sir George Chetwynd versus Lord Durham tried in 1889. The stewards of the Jockey Club, who sat as arbitrators in the case, decided that the plaintiff had not been guilty of the practices charged—namely, conspiring with jockeys and trainers to run horses in such a way as to deceive and plunder the public—but they filled his soul with sadness by giving him merely nominal damages instead of the much larger sum at which he seems to have estimated the injury to his reputation. On the evidence here given, the arbitrators could hardly have failed to acquit Sir George on the more serious charges; but the mere fact that he admitted having borrowed money from his own jockey during an "impecunious period," shows that the exigencies of the turf are not conducive to a delicate sense of propriety in money matters.

Of late years the increase in the amount of stakes and in the number of race-meetings, both in England and in France, has led to an enormous extension of the betting mania, with the usual demoralizing results. Any one who has spent a few weeks before the Derby in England cannot fail to be impressed with the universality of this form of gambling, and we have recently seen that the French Legislature has taken alarm, and is endeavoring to curb the evil on the other side of the Channel. Sir George is decidedly of opinion that there can be no racing without betting, and if this is so, it becomes a serious question whether the improvement of the breed of horses or any other of the stock arguments in favor of racing can be considered to have any weight as an offset to so manifest an evil. Sir George admits that the professional layers of odds are certain to win in the long run from the backers of horses, and yet he and other owners of horses seem to be satisfied to remain in the latter category at the risk of "periods of impecuniosity," and his readers may fairly apply to him the language he makes use of in regard to certain other "plungers": "No amount of publicity or warning apparently has any deterrent effect on some foolish and credulous people who, indeed, seem born to be swindled!" In this connection Sir George tells a story of a well-known bookmaker with the appropriate name of Swindell, who was asked by a friend what he should do in the case of a man who had paid him twice over for a bet of £100. "Do," said he; "why, look hard at him next time thee meets him, and perhaps he'll pay thee a third time!"

Turning to racing, Sir George's account of the important races of the last twenty years brings into prominence a point which the non-sporting public rarely appreciates, namely, the number of races won by the jockeys rather than the horses. He gives many instances in which the skill, shrewdness, and knowledge of the course possessed by Fordham or Cannon entirely changed the result and upset the nicest calculation. These two successful riders were singularly different in their style of riding, Fordham bending forward over the horse's neck, gripping the saddle with his knees, and holding the whip in his left hand, while Cannon sat perfectly straight in his saddle, holding the reins in his left hand and the whip in his right. The general result of Sir George's experience is that he would not recommend a young man to go on the turf, because the occasional victories do not make up for the jealousies, quarrels, and disappointments that seem

inseparable from the sport; but he thinks any man would deserve well of his country if he devoted himself to breeding race-horses. The difficulty is, that the man who breeds running-horses wants to see them run, and then wants to back them.

Among the stories with which Sir George has enlivened his narrative is a curious one about Lord Vivian's dream the night before the race for the City and Suburban in 1874. It appears that he dreamed the race was won by a horse called "The Teacher," and in the morning he looked over the entries, but could not find any horse of that name. Later on he was informed that one of the starters, a horse called "Aldrich," had formerly been called "The Teacher," but that his owner did not think he had any chance of winning the race. Nevertheless, Lord Vivian backed his dream by taking the long odds of a thousand to thirty, and the horse won by a neck. It would be interesting to know how much money has been lost by backing dreams since the year 1874.

By the omission of the trial scene and a little judicious editing, Sir George's Reminiscences might have been reduced to one volume with much advantage to his readers; but, in spite of prolixity and occasional solecisms, the book is decidedly readable.

Principles of English Etymology. By the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, Litt.D., LL.D., etc., Professor of Anglo-Saxon in the University of Cambridge. First Series: The Native Element. 1887. Second Series: The Foreign Element. 1891. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

PROF. SKEAT has been long recognized as the foremost among the University professors in England in his perception of the needs of students of English and his skill and promptness in supplying them. In his Etymological Dictionary he appears as a champion of the scientific study of etymology, a sort of prophet among the dictionary-makers of Great Britain, announcing the supremacy of law over the whole history of every letter of every English word, and denouncing all etymologists who neglect the laws. He has a broadside of this sort in his preface, and he keeps up a running fire from word to word through the whole dictionary. After that was finished, in 1881, Prof. Skeat undertook to prepare a manual of the etymological principles or laws which he found to be exemplified in the words discussed in the dictionary. In the dictionary the words which exhibit any phonetic law are scattered through the book as they happen to occur in alphabetical order. In the new manual they are brought together under the statement of the law. They can thus be studied together, and seen to throw light on each other and to establish and define the law.

In the First Series the earlier words of our language, "the native element," are taken up. These are mostly Anglo-Saxon, with a few other Low-German and some Scandinavian words, but there are also some Celtic and Latin and Greek words of the early time. In the Second Series Prof. Skeat takes up the words which have been added to English since the Norman Conquest, "the foreign element," as he calls it. The most important part of these are "Anglo-French," but he gives a chapter to Latin, to Italian, to Spanish, to Portuguese, to Greek, and seven chapters to sundries—Slavic, Persian, Sanskrit, Hebrew, Arabic, and other Asiatic languages, African languages, and various American languages.

The method used is to explain the pronunciation of the words when they were taken into

English, or became known as English, and then set forth the principal phonetic changes that have taken place in them since. The First Series is thus occupied mainly with the phonetic laws of Anglo-Saxon, and the Second Series with those of Anglo-French. Grimm's law, Verner's law, the laws of vowel gradation and vowel mutation play a great part in the first volume. They are presented with careful elaboration of statement and a very complete collection of the English words which illustrate them. The best part of the work is the research, the original gathering of examples, and the accurate presentation of them. Perhaps the most interesting matter is the history of the growth of modern English spelling, and a discussion of its present condition, which occupies about a hundred pages, and gives the most complete view of it that is to be found. Like all other scientific studies of our language, Prof. Skeat groans over our present alphabetical condition. He closes with the following paragraph:

"The shortest description of modern spelling is to say that, speaking generally, it represents Victorian pronunciation of 'popular' words by means of symbols imperfectly adapted to an Elizabethan pronunciation; the symbols themselves being mainly due to the Anglo-French scribes of the Plantagenet period, whose system was meant to be phonetic. It also aims at suggesting to the eye the original forms of 'learned' words. It is thus governed by two conflicting principles, neither of which, even in its own domain, is consistently carried out."

The material of the Second Series is fresher than that of the first. The Anglo-French is comparatively unknown even to specialists in English etymology and French etymology.

"I know of nothing," says Prof. Skeat, "more disgraceful to such a land as England, the lawyers of which have made more or less use of Anglo-French for some eight hundred years, than the fact that no one has yet taken in hand to make a reasonably useful dictionary, or even a vocabulary, of this highly important language." "As far as I can discover, the only person who has done any useful work in this direction is myself."

He refers to his word-lists published by the Philological Society of London, and to that of his eldest daughter, published by the English Dialect Society. As was to be expected, *Beiträge* have followed from Germany. But pretty much all the exposition of Anglo-French forms and of the changes they have undergone on the way to our present English is eminently Prof. Skeat's.

His lists contain nearly 8,400 A. F. words, and his discussions are lively throughout, and clear up numerous spellings which seem inexplicable to the mere student of modern French and college Latin. Many words are condemned: "*vitaille*, now absurdly spelt 'victual' instead of 'vittle.'" "I much regret to find that some Dictionaries mark the old word *chivalry* with *ch = sh*, which is detestable." "We find it [oblige] as [oblij] in Pope, Prol. to Satires, 208, but this was due to the influence of Continental French." One drawback is found here and there: Prof. Skeat uses Southern English pronunciation, sometimes without reference to any other. He says, for example, that the A. F. *or* followed by a consonant gives rise to two sounds, that in *attorney* and that in *cord*, *pork*, *forfeit*, *sport*, *order*, etc.; pronouncing *cord* *caud*, rhyming with *laud*, *pork* *pauk*, rhyming with *hawk*, *sport* *spraut*, rhyming with *taught*, etc., though this pronunciation has hardly found its way into literature or the dictionaries, and the standard pronunciation is left unexplained. On the whole, however, this is a very useful book.

It has a great deal of interesting matter not easily accessible elsewhere, and not a little valuable material wholly its own.

The Prelude to Modern History. By J. P. Symes, University College, Nottingham. London: Rivingtons.

THIS little volume of 139 pages, 12mo, with 4 historical maps, professes to give a brief sketch of the world's history from the third to the ninth century, in fourteen chapters, representing as many lectures delivered by the author. To each chapter a summary is added, evidently to serve for cramming. The period covered is from 250 to 850 A. D.

There is no original research in the book, and no reference to authorities; nor has the author been careful in stating well-known facts correctly, and in calling countries and nations by their right, and not by misleading names. In an introductory chapter on Rome before the middle of the third century he says (p. 2): "The Romans tolerated all religions except those of the Jews and of the Druids." This is hardly true. The Jews, indeed, were misused and massacred in Palestine and Alexandria, where they struggled for independence, or at least for autonomy; but in the very city of Rome Jews have been allowed to worship in their own style from the days of Cæsar to those of Umberto. The classing of the Franks as Low Germans (p. 103) is not supported by their literary remains, which are the highest of High German. A part of the Franks have always remained in Germany, and have always spoken a High German dialect. To speak of the country of the Saxons in the days of Otto I. as "Saxony" (p. 139) is misleading, and to call him King of Saxony, instead of Duke of the Saxons, is incorrect. The "Austrian State" (*ibid.*) was far from being along with the Saxon the chief State of Germany in the ninth or tenth century. In speaking of the legislative work of Justinian, the writer seems to overlook the 'Novels,' by which smoothness and symmetry is given to the Old Roman law and most of its harsh and arbitrary rules are revoked. Take, for instance, the well-known 118th Novel, establishing the laws of descent upon the equality of the sexes, both among children and collaterals, and the abrogation of all preference of the *agnati* over the *cognati*. The people of Arabia before Islam did not claim descent from Ishmael (p. 86), but only the people of the Hijaz; the others knew little if anything of Bible genealogies.

There are some queer slips of the pen; thus, the Gothic historian Jornandes is disguised as "Jordanes" (p. 28). The first Khalif, Abu Bekr (Father of the Girl), is spoken of, for short, as Abu (p. 96), as we might abridge John Smith into John. The Langobards are before their conquest of Italy called Lombards (p. 76 and elsewhere); a name only given to the people of Lombardy when the Teuton conquerors had been fused with the provincials and colonists on the Po. Many other inaccuracies both of substance and of form might be quoted, without referring to some that may be the fault of the proof-reader. The most interesting parts of the work, showing most thought and independent treatment, are those dealing with the rise of the Christian Church, its Fathers and its warring divisions. Prof. Symes maintains a charming neutrality between the friends and enemies of Christianity, though sometimes it looks as if he justified the persecuting Roman Emperors, and at other times as if he preferred the faith and morality of the Moslem, if not to Christianity in gene-

ral, at least to that of Mohammed's time. The chapter on the Fathers (Clement, Origen, Tertullian, Augustine, Cyprian, Athanasius, Ambrose, and Jerome) and on Pope Gregory the Great, are to the general reader the most instructive and on the whole the most interesting.

Chapters on the Theory and History of Banking. By Charles F. Dunbar, G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

Most of these chapters were printed some years ago for the use of Harvard students, and they are now published with some valuable additional chapters and with copious explanatory notes, some of which refer to recent events in the financial world. About half of the book deals with the elements and ordinary methods of banking, and the remainder gives brief but interesting accounts of our national-bank system and of the leading European banks. The writer of such a treatise should possess above all things lucidity of thought and expression, and Prof. Dunbar can fairly lay claim to these qualifications. Moreover, a careful examination fails to discover any of the errors in facts and figures which so often annoy the reader of books devoted to financial affairs.

In discussing our national-bank system, Prof. Dunbar incidentally calls attention to two of its weakest points, namely, the certification of checks, which most bankers will agree with him in considering "peculiarly liable to abuse, and an efficient instrument for promoting hazardous speculation," and the concentration of country bank reserves in New York. Last October the national banks held 1,758 millions of deposits, calling for a reserve of 353 millions of cash. They actually showed a reserve of 478 millions, but of this amount only 282 millions was in cash, while the remainder was in the hands of correspondents in reserve cities—largely in New York. Now when we remember that at that period the New York banks held barely 25 per cent. of reserve, it is obvious that the country banks would have found it difficult to obtain their deposits in actual cash if any sudden emergency had compelled them to call for their money. In this respect the New York banks occupy exactly the same position towards the country banks that the Bank of England does towards the joint-stock banks and private bankers of London: they are the holders of the *ultimate* cash reserve, and as such they accept a serious responsibility in time of trouble. How serious that responsibility may become in a panic is best described by showing the condition of the Bank of England on November 12, 1857, when its deposits (belonging mainly to other banks and bankers) had been reduced to £13,000,000 and its available cash to £581,000.

In England the remedy for such a state of things is a suspension of the act of 1844, whereby the bank is enabled to issue notes uncovered by coin, and this remedy has been applied with entire success on three occasions. Our banks have adopted a somewhat similar plan by combining their reserves and issuing clearing-house certificates. This arrangement has been found to work well in the past, and will probably continue to do so in the future, unless the country banks should some day require a large amount of cash. The German plan seems to be on the whole the best that has yet been devised. Under the law of 1875, the banks can increase their issues of notes uncovered by cash beyond the legalized amount, but must pay a tax of 5 per cent. on such over-

issues. The high rates they are compelled to charge their customers for such extra accommodation tend to diminish speculation, and act as a kind of automatic safety-valve.

In consequence of the rapid reduction of our bonded debt, the present national-bank circulation is being steadily reduced, and promises to become extinct before long. It is to be hoped that the early subsidence of the silver craze will leave us still on a gold basis, and prepared to adopt a new currency system founded on the only true measure of value. When that time comes, Prof. Dunbar's record of the experiences of European nations should be a valuable guide to our legislators.

Typical Elms and Other Trees of Massachusetts. Introductory Chapter by Oliver Wendell Holmes. Descriptive Text by Lorin L. Dame. Plates by Henry Brooks, reproduced by the photogelatine process. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1890. Folio, pp. 89, tt. 58.

THIS fine volume is the realization of a wish expressed long ago by the Autocrat of the Breakfast Table that some one would publish a set of "Photographs of New England Elms and other Trees taken upon the same scale of Magnitude"; and it is a pleasant thing to note that the Autocrat himself, now almost "the last leaf upon the tree," has with his own pen written the Introduction. Meanwhile, the great Elm of Boston Common has fallen, and the Washington Elm in Cambridge is fast dropping to pieces; the Charter Oak lives chiefly in its seedling, a fine and thrifty tree in the Hartford Park; and the Stuyvesant Pear-tree is reduced to walking-sticks and perhaps a chair in some Historical Society. Twenty-four of these plates represent a careful selection of the largest and most beautiful, or at least most noteworthy, elms of Massachusetts. The letter-press gives the traditions which have gathered about each tree, like the moss on its trunk, and to this lore is added the measurement of girth, of height, and of widest spread of the branches. The "other trees" of the Autocrat's prophecy are several oaks of various kinds, three rock-maples, three pines, two hickories, as many nettle-trees and horse chestnuts, and one each of ashes, willows, and chestnuts, the buttonwood, the sassafras, the three-thorned acacia and the black walnut—all large and well-chosen examples of their kinds. None of the oaks described attain the dimensions of the Charter Oak; and as that tree must have counted its age by centuries on centuries, they are all saplings in the comparison. Even the little-known white oak of Northford, in Connecticut, is considerably larger (and doubtless older) than any of those mentioned by Mr. Dame.

This book is more than interesting: it is an invaluable contribution to American forestry, and forms a most worthy companion to Prof. Sargent's 'Silva.'

Life of W. M. Thackeray. By Herman Merivale and Frank T. Marzials. [Great Writers Series.] London: Walter Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 1891.

IN estimating a Life of Thackeray, allowance must be made for the meagreness of the materials, and perhaps such a biography as the present was needed to show just how small and uncertain our knowledge of his personal life is. The book, however, is unusually rambling and inconsequent. It is the work of two different authors, who have little in common in their

notions of how a biography should be written. Mr. Merivale contributes the earlier chapters and a final one, and he had the advantage of some private family papers from which he extracted an account of the ancestors of the novelist, and also passages from his schoolboy letters and college diary; but this new matter is of a very slight kind, and the substance of Mr. Merivale's part is in the main his own thoughts about Thackeray. It is all very pleasant talk at an easy-going pace, but it is not biography. He writes of Thackeray's qualities, and illustrates them; he combats the criticism of Miss Jameson, too inane to require notice, and of Trollope, which was of little more consequence in itself. He thinks Thackeray's moods are explained by saying that his was a disappointed life, and that he was consoled in his discouragement by religion of a simple, pious kind; if he was idle, it was the way of his genius; and at all events his prose is excellent novelist's talk. This is the manner of Mr. Merivale's writing, and though a sincere admiration of Thackeray is constantly felt and a disposition to defend him against all comers is pugnaciously shown, the reader does not advance much in knowledge of the facts of his personality. Mr. Marzials takes up the thread, and, though he is more systematic in his work, he is obliged to draw upon the novels themselves for his filling in, and he does little more than gather from scattered mention of Thackeray in memoirs of other people what may serve to complete the lists of dates, lectures, and journeys. The book is successful in this bringing together of incidents and anecdotes; it is interesting to read; but, after all is said in its favor, it remains only a prolonged talk about the author, now narrative, now speculative. At the end there is an attempt to reconcile the conflicting impressions made by Thackeray on those who met him, and to ascribe much to his Bohemian life, his moodiness, and his ill-health. The one thing made out is that no Life of Thackeray exists, and consequently there is not sufficient evidence to base a personal characterization on.

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